AN EVALUATION OF THE VOCATIONAL CENTRE KNOWN AS PITCAITHLY HOUSE

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ABSTRACT

The Pitcaithly House Vocational Centre in Christchurch runs a number of employment-related courses for school leavers. An exploratory attempt was made to evaluate the effectiveness of these courses using a self-administered questionnaire. Emphasis was placed upon demonstrating measurable changes in the employment-seeking knowledge and skills of a sample of 53 school-leavers. An additional 49 school students who had not been exposed to the courses served as a control group. Those attending the courses studied exhibited statistically significant changes on a number of questionnaire items. Some suggestions are made regarding possible modifications to Pitcaithly House courses based upon this research.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A need for Vocational Centres such as Pitcaithly House was developed out of the changing world of work and of increasing levels of unemployment. Students facing the transition from school to employment are in need of courses presenting occupational information, practical job-seeking skills, and life or coping skills.

It has become increasingly evident that work and careers are unstable because of changing technology. The continued existence in the long-term of many kinds of occupation is unknown - technological changes in the world of work today mean obsolescence of some jobs and the creation of other distinctly new ones. But there is little evidence that there will ever be enough jobs for everyone who may wish to work. This instability of work can be a source of anxiety for both youth and adult. What is necessary is to develop in young people, a state of mind that can cope with readjustments in work or with the shock of unemployment (Mihalka, 1974).

Pitcaithly House programmes have been in operation since 1979, when they were developed in response to student needs that were not adequately catered for by existing services. The purpose of this study is an evaluation of the effectiveness of these programmes - to determine what is gained by the students attending Pitcaithly House courses. Of the many different approaches to evaluation possible, it was decided

to use a self-administered questionnaire containing a high proportion of open-ended questions - to produce a wealth of student responses and avoid the preclusion of interesting or relevant information that might otherwise have been lost by using closed questions alone. Intended as an exploratory study, it is suggested that results be extended and explained in more depth in follow-up studies.

A review of the relevant literature is to be found in Chapter II. Consisting of three parts, the first gives an outline of major contributions to the theory of vocational choice and development. It is followed by a section of material relating to the problems faced by young people in making their transition from school to work. The literature review then turns to the special problem of unemployment faced by young people today.

Chapter III presents information on Pitcaithly House itself, including practicalities, course content and goals of the programme.

Chapter IV outlines the method used in the evaluation, covering such aspects as questionnaire design, administration of the questionnaire, the quantification of questionnaire data, and possible biases in the experimental design.

Chapter V gives a presentation of results and a discussion of these. The statistical analyses used are outlined, followed by a systematic summary of results for each questionnaire item. Those questions yielding statistically significant results are accompanied by the relevant tables; the remaining tables are included in the Appendices. A general discussion of the results is followed by conclusions and recommendations both for Pitcaithly House and for further study.

The thesis is concluded by References and Appendices.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

I. THEORIES OF VOCATIONAL CHOICE AND DEVELOPMENT

The different approaches describing career development or some aspect of it have been classified in a number of ways. (Herr and Cramer, 1979). Osipow (1973) writes that some arbitrariness must be involved in any description of these models, but for his purposes, "the existing theories of career development were assigned to one of four categories: the trait-factor theories, the sociological theories, the self-concept or developmental theories, and the personality-in-career theories." (p.12) A similar classification will be adopted here.

(1) Trait-Factor Theories

The oldest theoretical approach dates back to the early 1900s and is associated primarily with Frank Parsons, one of the founders of the guidance movement, and later with E.G. Williamson. Rooted in the psychology of individual differences, the trait and factor approach consists of a three-step process:

(i) discover the traits or characteristics of the individual;

(ii) analyse the requirements for each occupation;

(iii) match the individual to the job.

(London, 1973; Osipow, 1973; Weinrach, 1973, 1979; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975; Herr and Cramer, 1979; Crites, 1981; Law, 1981).

Historically, the trait and factor approach has played a prominent part in the development of guidance, although relatively recently, Weinrach (1973) raised a number of questions about the assumptions underlying the approach. Interest inventories, aptitude tests and other psychometric devices of the type developed by Strong (1959) and Kuder (1960), proved very popular with vocational counsellors because of their simplicity of implementation. (Osipow, 1973; Weinrach, 1973; 1979)

(2) Sociological Theories

Osipow (1973) writes of the sociological model, or, as it has also been labelled, the reality or accident theory of vocational choice:

> "This approach has as its central point the notion that circumstances beyond the control of the individual contribute significantly to the career choices he makes, and that the principal task confronting the youth (or older person for that matter) is the development of techniques to cope effectively with his environment." (p.10)

Both Caplow (1954) and Miller and Form (1951) stress the importance of chance in determining opportunities for vocational choice. Miller and Form state that the "accident of birth" is of prime importance in determining the occupation of most workers, for it establishes an individual's social status and educational opportunities, which in turn

determine the range of occupations an individual may consider. They further believe that a process of trial and error within an individual's environmental confines, determines occupational goals. Caplow (1954) similarly believes that error and accident play a large part in determining an individual's vocation. He emphasises parental influence and an individual's education as the two most important determinants of vocational development. (Hewer, 1962; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975; Herr and Cramer, 1979; Saha, 1982). Hewer (1962) notes that both Caplow and Miller and Form place heavy emphasis on the effects of social status on vocational choice, and that they are supported further in this respect by Hollingshead (1941).

Herr and Cramer (1979) cite Lipsett (1962) as arguing for the need to understand social factors and their implications. Various theorists have emphasized different factors, for example family background, peer group, significant adults, social class, education, occupational perceptions and political and economic situations, as well as others, yet they essentially agree that social factors are important in influencing an individual's vocational choice and development (Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975).

Musgrave (1967) proposed that the theories of vocational development by psychologists Ginzberg et. al. (1951) and Super (1957) could be profitably restated in sociological terms. His theory focusses on the process of socialisation, seen strictly as learning to take rôles. For any child:

> "... the life cycle can be seen as a large number of alternative pathways consisting of the series of rôles that are available for choice by the

> individual or by surrogates, such as parents or teachers, on his behalf. Choice at each stage limits the possible pathways along which the individual may travel in the future."
>
> (Musgrave, 1967, p.34)

The child has to build up a rôle map of his society to enable him to choose an occupation that more or less matches his wishes from amongst the limited range locally available.

Coulson, Keil, Riddell and Struthers (1967) criticised Musgrave (1967) for an inadequate theory. In addition to a lack of empirical evidence, they contend that Musgrave uses the concepts of rôle and socialisation imprecisely, and without reference to social structure. Musgrave (1968) incorporated the exchange-theory ideas proposed by Ford and Box (1967) in his reply.

Roberts (1968, 1977) argued that people don't choose jobs in any meaningful sense, but rather take what is available. All the major determinants of occupational status lie outside the individual (Law, 1981). Thus, Roberts proposed a theory based on the key concept of opportunity structure, rather than the "inadequate" concepts of occupational choice.

(3) Self-Concept Theory

Osipow (1973) terms this third approach alternately the developmental or the self-concept theory.

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod and Herma (1951) were early leaders in speculating about career development as a process. (Herr and Cramer, 1979; Weinrach, 1979). They perceived occupational choice as an irreversible process that occurs in clearly marked periods of a person's life and is

characterized by a series of compromises between personal wishes and what is actually possible. The process is analysed in terms of three major periods - fantasy, tentative and realistic choices - each of which may be further subdivided. (Ginzberg et. al., 1951; Super, 1953; Ginzberg, 1972; London, 1973; Osipow, 1973; Mihalka, 1974; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975).

Ginzberg revised his original position in 1972. No longer did he consider the process of occupational decision-making to be limited to a decade, but rather as an open-ended process that can last a life-time. Secondly, he reconsiders the concept of irreversibility of occupational choice, and thirdly that of compromise. (Ginzberg, 1972; Osipow, 1973; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975; Herr and Cramer, 1979; Weinrach, 1979).

> "Our reformulated theory is that *occupational choice is a lifelong process of decision-making in which the individual seeks to find the optimal fit between his career preparation and goals and the realities of the world of work."*
>
> (Ginzberg, 1972, p.62)

Research studies conducted by O'Hara and Tiedeman (1959) produced mixed findings, but they did indicate some compromise exists between occupational wishes and reality. However, the identification of stages, what they are, when they occur, and in what order, was limited (Mihalka, 1974). Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) indicated that there is no smooth, orderly progression between stages of occupational decision-making, and that progress can be upset, reversed, or back-tracked (Absalom, 1979). Roberts (1968) points out that

Ginzberg et. al. (1951) drew their samples exclusively from educationally privileged sectors of American society, and themselves realised the probable need for modification before findings could be applied to other groups. The merit of Ginzberg's work however is that it does co-ordinate information about various aspects of employment: relationships between ambitions and their determinants, jobs entered, and people's feelings about their work.

Using Ginzberg's theory as a point of departure, Super and his associates evolved, over a period of years, what is generally recognised as the most comprehensive theory of occupational development (London, 1973). Herr and Cramer (1979) write that it has received the most continuous attention, stimulated most research, influenced most pervasively the field of vocational psychology and is most comprehensive.

Super, like Ginzberg, subscribes to a developmental framework and stresses that entry into employment is a process - no part of which can be properly understood in isolation (Roberts, 1968; Weinrach, 1979). Pointing out a number of limitations in Ginzberg et. al's (1951) contribution, Super (1953) went on to state his own theory in a series of ten propositions:

"1. People differ in their abilities, interests, and personalities.

2. They are qualified, by virtue of these characteristics, each for a number of occupations.

3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests, and personality traits, with tolerances wide enough, however, to allow both some variety

of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.

4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work, and hence their self concepts, change with time and experience (although self concepts are generally fairly stable from late adolescence until late maturity), making choice and adjustment a continuous process.
5. This process may be summed up in a series of life stages characterized as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into
   (a) the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and
   (b) the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.
6. The nature of the career pattern (that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs) is determined by the individual's parental socioeconomic level, mental ability, and personality characteristics, and by the opportunities to which he is exposed.
7. Development through the life stages can be guided, partly by facilitating the process of maturation of abilities and interests and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of the self concept.

8. The process of vocational development is essentially that of developing and implementing a self concept: it is a compromise process in which the self concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, neural and endocrine make-up, opportunity to play various roles, and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows.

9. The process of compromise between individual and social factors, between self concept and reality, is one of role playing, whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counselling interview, or in real life activities such as school classes, clubs, part-time work, and entry jobs.

10. Work satisfactions and life satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits, and values; they depend upon his establishment in a type of work, a work situation, and a way of life in which he can play the kind of role which his growth and exploratory experiences have led him to consider congenial and appropriate." (Super, 1953, pp.78-79)

Super envisaged occupational choice as developing through stages similar to those suggested by Ginzberg;

> "... but whereas Ginzberg attached prime importance to the individual's growing awareness of his own interests and capacities, Super placed greater stress upon the rôle of the individual's social environment in structuring the individual's conception of his interests, abilities and capacities."
> (Roberts, 1968, p.168)

Drawing in part on the work of Buehler (1933), Super (1953, 1957) proposed five developmental stages - growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline - each of which is further divided into substages. (Hewer, 1962; Williamson, 1964; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975; Weinrach, 1979).

In 1963, Super reviewed research on self-concepts in vocational development. He proposes that individuals strive to implement their self-concept by entering an occupation that will most likely allow them to achieve self expression. The individual obtains a degree of satisfaction from his work which is proportionate to the degree to which he has been able to implement his self-concept. Super makes it clear that although vocational self-concept has some consistency, it does change through life as a result of experience. (Hewer, 1962; Super, 1963; Roberts, 1968; Osipow, 1973; Mihalka, 1974; Sofer, 1974; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975).

> "In brief, Super's theory is that vocational development is a stage-by-stage implementation of the self-concept in the world of work."
> (London, 1973, p.187)

It may be relevant here to mention the work of Blau, Parnes, Gustad, Jessor and Wilcock (1956), who provide a conceptual framework (rather than a theory) for the under-

standing of occupational choice. Their work constitutes an attempt to combine psychological, economic and sociological variables, as an extension of the developmental process theories of Ginzberg et. al. (1951) and Super (1953). Blau et. al. propose that the understanding of how people get into their occupations requires the study of personality development, together with an analysis of the social and economic conditions of selection. Social structure is seen as having a dual significance for occupational choice in that it influences both the personality development of the chooser, and defines the socio-economic conditions in which selection takes place. (Blau et. al., 1956; Hewer, 1962; Sofer, 1974).

(4) Personality Theories

Essentially, the theme running through these theories is that a person selects an occupation that either consciously or unconsciously allows potential satisfaction for one or several needs. (Osipow, 1973; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975).

Roe (1957) has applied personality theory to career development to explain motivational aspects of career choice. Her approach is primarily concerned with the hierarchy of needs concept, attributed largely to Maslow (1954). The individual's degree of motivation for attainment of vocational goals is determined by the strength of the needs structure. Parental care and child rearing are additional factors which influence the type of occupation an individual will seek out and the probable level of attainment in the chosen field.

(Roe, 1957; Osipow, 1973; Mihalka, 1974; Pietrofesa and Splete 1975; Herr and Cramer, 1979; Weinrach, 1979). Although Roe's theory may appear logical, related research by Grigg (1956, 1959), Hagen (1960) and Crites (1962) among others, has provided little support - the problem of adequate measurement of personality factors being a limiting factor. (Osipow, 1973; Mihalka, 1974; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975).

Another personality approach to career development is the composite theory proposed by Hoppock (1957). After reviewing a number of conflicting theories, Hoppock suggested the possibility that there may be some truth in all of them. The "composite" theory he formulated is essentially a series of speculations about occupational choice which give prominence to need fulfillment. (London, 1973; Osipow, 1973; Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975; Herr and Cramer, 1979).

Holland (1959, 1966) based his theory of vocational choice on the study of personality types. The four basic assumptions underlying his theory are as follows:

1. Most people can be categorized as one of six types - realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional.
2. There are six corresponding types of work environment.
3. "People search for environments and vocations that will permit them to exercise their skills and abilities, to express their attitudes and values and to take on agreeable problems and roles..."
   (Holland, 1966, p.11)

4. A person's behaviour is determined by an interaction between his personality and the characteristics of his environment.

Thus, individuals seek those educational and occupational settings which permit expression of their personality types. While Holland originally believed that people could be characterized by a single type, his revised theory, Holland (1973), suggests apparent influences from a second and frequently a third type, for the individual is required to use a wide range of strategies for coping with his environment. In addition to his theory, Holland has developed two psychometric instruments for the assessment of personality types, the Vocational Preference Inventory (V.P.I.) and the Self Directed Search (S.D.S.).

Research into the theory has been comprehensive, both by Holland and his associates and by other investigators, and indicates its validity in broad outline. Holland has made a number of refinements over the years in response to objections by his critics, and may be expected to refine the theory even more in the future. Common limitations that have been ascribed to the theory are that it is sexist, that it does not sufficiently explain the process of personality development and its role in vocational selection, and that it does not take into account the fact that individuals and environments can change. (Holland, 1959, 1966; Osipow, 1973; Mihalka, 1974; Herr and Cramer, 1979; Weinrach, 1979).

(5) Evaluation

Theories of vocational choice and development are many and varied. Yet no single theory appears complete in

itself, for the authors have focussed their attention on specific factors that differentiate them from one another - each theory makes a unique contribution. Osipow (1973) writes that:

> "... the various theories differ not only because the thinking of their authors about careers is distinctive, but also because they are trying to accomplish different objectives in their theorizing." (p.288)

Practically, the counsellor often utilises a combination of theories, adapting several to meet the local situation, the characteristics of the counsellees and the employment opportunities that may be available.

A number of criticisms have been raised against the existing theories. First, most have been based on limited samples of rather gifted and privileged students, and most have been based on men rather than women. Fitzgerald and Crites (1980) note that it has become commonplace to suggest that current theories of career choice can not adequately explain the vocational behaviour of women.

Second, a growing number of writers have questioned the myth of the meaningfulness of work. Most vocational theories appear to be grounded on the proposition that jobs are intrinsically satisfying and that all persons want to work - they merely have to identify the appropriate occupation. Herr and Cramer (1979) cite Zytowski (1965):

> 'They assume that all men want to work, that the idea of a vocation has a positive valence as a goal, or that the effect attached to career behaviour is positive.' (p.99)

For many, choice is merely avoiding the undesirable, not moving towards an ideal.

Third, implicit in the theories of vocational choice is the notion that young people do have just that - freedom of choice. MacLean (1980) points out however that the reality for many youngsters leaving school today is Hobson's Choice - the first job that comes along becomes the one for them. Under such conditions, it becomes difficult to talk about vocational choice and vocational decision-making.

Finally, the current approaches to career development tend to present the ideal or model situation that may rarely exist. They largely describe what happens if nothing is done to influence the process. What is called for is more longitudinal studies on the effects of different strategies of intervention on career development.

Law (1981) calls for yet another formulation of career development theory, with a "mid-range focus". He writes that the:

> "... assembly of evidence re-configures or picture of how who-does-what is decided and, accordingly, it redirects our attention. Its primary focus is neither upon 'big-picture' trends identified by the telescopes of functionalist sociology, nor upon the 'small-picture' refinements afforded by the microscopes of differential, developmental and counselling psychology. Its focus is mid-range: referring to, and demonstrating the importance to our understanding of, the way in which both 'big-picture' and 'small-picture' events occur in the context of 'community interaction' between the

individual and the social group of which he or she is a member." (p.148)

II. THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

Of all the major transitions faced by children - from home to school, from primary to secondary school, and from secondary school to the world of work - it is the final transition from the educational system to the labour force that is perhaps the most important and at the same time the most difficult. For it marks an initiation into adult life and involves a number of adjustments and changes. (Swenson, 1977; Australian Working Party, 1976). Maizels (1970) regards the break with school and entry into employment as part of a longer phase in children's lives which begins while they are still at school, with the development of expectations and aspirations about school and work, and extends well into their first year at work. Young individuals proceed through a series of stages and decisions, hence the term "transitional years". Carter (1966) writes that while the transition from school to work for most young people is relatively smooth, this does not imply that all is well. On the contrary, many young people are ill-prepared for employment in that they know little about what to expect when they start work; some difficulties do occur for most.

In recent years, there has been increasing public dissatisfaction with the way that young people are being prepared for working life. Criticism has fallen on society, the family and the young people themselves, but predominantly on the schools. This increasing interest in the problems faced

by young people in their transition from school to working life has undoubtedly been due in part to the high and rising levels of youth unemployment. But it is a mistake to confuse the problems of youth unemployment with those of the school to work transition. The issues surrounding the transition process existed well before youth unemployment reached its current levels. While schools can assist students to cope with the transition, they are quite unable to create jobs. However, in the face of such a long term problem, schools must reassess the relevance of their curriculum for students who will face a considerable period of their lives unemployed. (Beltz, 1978; Herr and Cramer, 1979; Randell, 1979; Reubens, 1979).

(1) Development of the Transition from School to Work Concept

The overriding aim of early efforts to aid the transition from school to work was to postpone the age of transition by prolonging education and establishing legal restrictions on the use of child labour. Following the two World Wars, new attitudes towards the transition developed out of changes in schooling and in the work environment. (Reubens, 1977)

The voluntary prolongation of formal studies by large numbers of students was one such change in education which has affected the perception of the transition. (Maizels, 1970; Reubens, 1977). Recent experience has also undermined the once strong belief that additional years of education automatically ease the transition, opening higher status and income occupations to educated young people. In today's tight labour market, added years of education can serve to intensify rather than ease transition problems, as the number

of graduates becomes excessive in terms of supply of jobs.

As for changes in the work environment, the focus has been on the structure of employment. As well as a general reduction in employment opportunities, there has been a decline of opportunities in agriculture and manufacturing where youth previously found entry jobs fairly easily. Specific "youth" jobs e.g. tea-boy, messenger-boy, have been eliminated as firms cut costs. The special problems faced by youth seeking employment are covered in more detail in a later section covering unemployment.

As changes in both the educational system and the world of work affected the concept of the transition from school to work, it emerged as an independent arena for study, distinct from the efforts to reform education, or youth employment. It was then possible to concentrate on improving the transition process itself. (Reubens, 1977). Maizels (1970) theorized that the transition from school to work was a "focal point in adolescent development, associated with uncertainties, disappointments, frustrations, and stress situations." (p.303)

Reubens (1977) considers literature on the subject since World War I to be in two phases: the first concentrates on the processes and attendant difficulties of moving from one world to another. The following main themes recur:

> "First, school is seen as an easier environment for youth and as profoundly different from employment. Second, the transition between school and work is judged to be swift and abrupt. Third, the initial transition experience is considered crucial and is said to exert a decisive influence on a young

persons whole occupational future." (p.4)

In the second phase, there is a shift in emphasis away from the movement between school and work, to the individual, encompassing the entire process of preparation for work and the labour market into which youth enter. The preparatory phase includes the development of cognitive, noncognitive and occupational skills, and such things as the movement from one level of education to another and the idea of lifelong education. The scope is widened in yet another sense by including many aspects of the youth labour market. For example, questions about the economic and social causes of youth unemployment; the stress and boredom of worklife; and exaggerated credentialism.

> "Whichever aspect of the extended idea of the transition process is stressed, be it the preparatory phase or the labour market conditions facing new entrants, those presenting such views of the transition tend to downgrade or ignore the importance of transition services." (pp.218-9)

(2) School versus Work

The transition from schooling to employment offers to students a marked change in lifestyle and outlook. Young people, previously isolated from the world of work in their schools, are obliged to make adjustments as they enter different types of occupation that make different demands on their skills and provide different rewards. In addition, the school-leaver faces a wide variety of practices in employment - of selection, induction and training. Standards of management, efficiency, hygiene, supervision, amenities

and staff relations also vary greatly. We can expect the initial response of young people to this abrupt transition to be one of anxiety. (Carter, 1966; Ashton, 1973; Bazalgette, 1975; Australian Working Party, 1976; Moor, 1976; Morgan, 1977; Reubens, 1977). Keil et. al. (1966) cite Miller and Form (1951) as suggesting that the confrontation of the realities of the work situation with the expectations carried over from the school situation can result in shock. Similarly, Mihalka (1974) writes that without previous work experience, the difficulties of obtaining a job and problems involved in holding that job, may combine to result in trauma termed "work shock". He advocates preparation in advance consisting of part-time employment or a variety of work experience, to develop valuable understanding of what is involved in the world of work.

What are the differences between school and work that students need preparation for? Carter (1966), Keil et. al. (1966), Mihalka (1974) and Morgan (1977) write of the disillusionment of young people as they enter the world of work. Carter mentions the effects of the physical differences between the two environments. Young people are likely to find the pace of work to be quicker than at school. The working day is longer and meal breaks shorter. In addition, it may be necessary to travel long distances to work. These factors combine to make it very tiring for the young worker until accustomed to the new routine. Keil et. al. (1966), Mihalka (1974) and Morgan (1977) write that for many school-leavers, the un-nerving facts of life are simply mundane. The initial job may be monotonous, dull, and not necessarily easy. Training is harder than school because the props

behind motivation, parents and teachers, have suddenly changed their function, whilst further study is both demanding and exhausting.

The unexpected and disappointing revelations about work however, are often more than matched by the long anticipated benefits. At home there are new situations to be faced. As wage-earners, young people now have new status in the family. Money opens up new opportunities in terms of clothes, holidays, leisure and the independence found in living away from home and having your own transport. (Carter, 1966; Morgan, 1977).

Bazalgette (1975) points out that there are different assumptions lying behind the organisations of schools and work places. Consider for example, the different kinds of groups found in schools and in work, especially in terms of size, stability and behaviour; the related assumptions about authority and leadership found in each; and the effect of those on each individual's relationship with the organisation to which he belongs.

Values and motivations are also different from at school, and there are new roles to be learned, new ways of behaving towards people and situations to adjust to. At work, it is necessary to get on with a wider range of people, and notably with older people. In addition to these differences in social relationships, differences in supervision, responsibilities and stability among others have been emphasised by various authors. (Carter, 1966; Keil et. al., 1966; Miller and Form, 1951; Reubens, 1977). The list of differences between school and work is considerable, yet as Keil et. al. write, we should not be tempted to over-generalise about the

contrasts between school and work or to exaggerate the differences, due to the actual complexity of experiences young people may undergo in their transition from school to work. The contrasts merely highlight the need for reliable transition services, to aid young people in a realistic transfer from school to the world of work.

(3) The Need for Information and Guidance

Career decisions can only be as realistic and appropriate as the amount of occupational information available at the time. (Drier, 1980). For young people to make intelligent and realistic choices of occupation and to secure the necessary preparation for entering them, they need to come to terms with a large amount of occupational information. They must be made aware both of their own potentialities and of the world of work. Yet the world of work, with its multiplicity of occupations is only vaguely comprehended by most young people. Distortions arise from gaps in knowledge, from false and overglamourized images implanted by the media, and from the erroneous and limited ideas conveyed by parents, relatives and peers. (Roberts, 1968; London, 1973; Reubens, 1977). In spite of the fact that efforts to provide information have multiplied well beyond the traditional printed matter - often not read by students (Ginzberg, 1972) - to include films, games, the use of computers and resource centres, most young people continue to enter the labour market with minimal and often erroneous information about work. (Drier, 1980)

The negative consequences of faulty or incomplete information are discussed in detail by Reubens (1977). Both the individual and society suffer as young people make poor

career decisions resulting in dissatisfaction, frequent job changing and other adverse experiences. The need for realistic information is clear, yet young people fail to take advantage of the formal sources of information available to them.

In contrast to the use of formal sources of vocational guidance, a number of studies have stressed the central and decisive influence of parents and the family circle on the formation of occupational choice, job information and advice, and the getting of jobs. (Carter, 1966; Maizels, 1970; Roberts, 1971; Meade, 1975; Saunders, 1976; Reubens, 1977; Manpower Services Commission, 1978). The young and unskilled, those of low socioeconomic or disadvantaged backgrounds, and minority groups are particularly dependent on informal sources of occupational information, yet these sources are most likely to be deficient. Thus it is that these groups of greatest need, also have the least inclination to seek and use formal channels of assistance - it is most difficult to motivate those who most need information from official sources as compensation for what is lacking at home and in other contacts. (Carter, 1960; Saunders, 1976; Reubens, 1977).

It is interesting to note however, that both Maizels (1970) and Ginzberg (1972) question the possible impact of any formal vocational guidance service. The minimal amount of time spent by a counsellor, even with those who have the greatest access to guidance services, is surely limited in contrast to years of previous conditioning, resulting in hardened job attitudes and the selective interpretation of any information imparted. A significant change to the young person's life-style seems unlikely.

(4) Work Experience

As schools withhold young people from the realities of working life and the opportunities for youth to gain work experience through part-time employment decline, work experience programmes can play an important role in easing the transition from school to employment by giving these young people real insights into the world of work. They enable pupils to see first-hand what working conditions are like, and, being better informed, to make more realistic occupational choices. (Mihalka, 1974; Labour and Employment Gazette, 1976; Moor, 1976; Manpower Services Commission, 1978). Reubens (1977) writes of work experience programmes as follows:

> "Defined as an unpaid closely supervised activity, work sampling [or work experience] is designed to assist pupils, usually in the last year of compulsory education, to make further educational and occupational choices as well as to gain knowledge of the broader world of work. From their observations and experience, young people may confirm or reject prior occupational choices. They may also decide not to drop out or leave school early, or they may change their study specialization." (p.83)

In his review of work experience programmes in Australia, Cole (1979) gives the following objectives, as cited in Randell (1979):

> "... to give students knowledge of a wide variety of employment fields and the world of work in general; to help students gain a greater knowledge of themselves and their abilities; to provide new

aspirations for the less motivated and to involve both parents and employers in career exploration." (p.11)

Although work experience has been received with much greater enthusiasm than the notion of more formal career preparation within the classroom (Morgan, 1977), the value of work experience is not subscribed to by all theorists. Some see any unpaid work experience programmes as incursions into adult employment (Burdestky, 1976). Cole (1976) as cited in Morgan (1977) condemns its utilisation as an activity to be assessed by the employer as part of the student's assessment profile. He also deplores the use of work experience schemes as methods of streaming pupils, "work-outs" becoming a compulsory activity for those indicating dissatisfaction with school and a desire to enter the workforce at the earliest opportunity.

Often, there is more simply a discrepancy between the reality of practice and the objectives of the programmes. The limited nature of many programmes can create a distorted view of work. Cole (1979) raises a number of points, including the following:

(i) The student is usually given only one chance to go on work experience. It is preferable that work experience opportunities should be many and varied in terms of skills required, physical conditions, degree of responsibility required, etc.

(ii) Students are insufficiently counselled. Both prior preparation and follow-up evaluation are important. Students should be encouraged to

analyse the tangible (e.g. pay, promotions, conditions) and the intangible (e.g. job satisfaction, power, sexism), aspects of employment.

(iii) Decisions made about what experience is best for the student are often made without consultation with the student. Also, other staff and parents are totally uninvolved. All should be involved in the process to gain insight into the student.

(5) Transition Problems Faced by Young Women

The transition from school to work for young women can be particularly difficult. Young women are disproportionately affected by unemployment (Gidlow, 1982; N.Z. Listener, 1983; Labour and Employment, 1983c). The Labour and Employment Gazette, (1983c) writes that during 1982, figures showed a consistent pattern in which women constituted over half of the registered unemployed school-leavers. In addition, women remain unemployed for longer periods than men. The N.Z. Listener (1983) writes that two out of every three long-term unemployed school-leavers are female. Finally, Shipley (1981) as reported in the Labour and Employment Gazette (1983c), suggests that of unemployed young women, single, childless young women felt the effects of unemployment most acutely.

One problem is that the majority of women are concentrated in relatively few, low paid and often low status, traditional occupations and industries. The six main occupational groups for women are teaching, nursing, secretarial and clerical work, clothing and sales - every one of which is shrinking. The introduction of new technology means there

will be even fewer traditionally female jobs in the future. (Gidlow, 1982; Berkeley et. al., 1978; N.Z. Listener, 1983; Labour and Employment Gazette, 1983c). Discrimination is found in schools, as many subjects are arranged along lines of traditional sexual roles. Girls' subject choices lead to narrower vocational preparation. (Gidlow, 1982; N.Z. Listener, 1983). Following school, women train for occupations in fewer numbers than men do, and they train in a more restricted range of occupations. For example, of the 172 occupations with apprenticeships in New Zealand, there are women in only 55 of them. (N.Z. Listener, 1983).

What can be done? The philosophy that a girl should limit her opportunities for training or for non-traditional jobs because she would only have to work until she married is no longer valid. The realisation is that most women are now in paid employment for most of their lives. (Gidlow, 1982; Berkeley et. al., 1978; N.Z. Listener, 1983). The stereotypes of people's expectations of women must be changed if they are to have equal employment opportunities. Neutral advertising and recruitment practices are not enough; they merely result in the maintenance of the status quo. Only intervention will ensure that changes occur (Labour and Employment Gazette, 1983c). Girls must be exposed to and encouraged to look at options of non-traditional employment throughout their schooling. They must be encouraged to broaden their traditional range of subjects. (Berkeley et. al., 1978; N.Z. Listener, 1983; Labour and Employment Gazette, 1983c). The myths held by some girls that females in non-traditional occupations are unfeminine, uninteresting or somehow "different" must be challenged (Gidlow, 1982). Parents, educators and employers too,

must be made aware of job options and persuaded to assist young women into non-traditional areas of employment and training. (Berkeley et. al., 1978; Labour and Employment Gazette, 1983c).

(6) Who is Responsible?

The responsibility for assisting youth to get their first job is poorly defined. Mihalka (1974) assigns the responsibility to the educational system, because it is the professional educator who has the knowledge and skill to prepare youth for adult roles, including work. In addition however, he calls for community support. For, as Burdetsky (1976) writes, community interest and co-operation are essential to the success of any programme established for students (and for those already in the labour market) who are experiencing difficulty in the changeover from school to work. A number of writers (Australian Working Party, 1976; Beltz, 1978; Hart, 1978; Wright, 1978) support the idea of community collaboration. As an example, Reed (1980) and Armstrong, Bazalgette and Reed (1981) describe a community involvement project in which "working coaches" are used to help the young unemployed overcome their feelings of powerlessness and rejection.

Beltz (1978) identifies five main interest groups within the community which can make valid contributions to an easier transition of young people from education to work: employers, schools, unions, parents, and the young people themselves.

(a) Employers. Very little has been written about the position of employers in the smooth transition of students from secondary schooling to employment. The responsibility for guidance has been located within the school rather than

the place of employment and it is the student who is expected to conform to the employer's expectations, rather than the employer being advised to study the needs of the new recruit (Morgan, 1977).

Employers are concerned that their expectations of employees' self-discipline, reliability and level of basic skills are not being met by young people. (Bazalgette, 1975; Melvyn and Freedman, 1979). Morgan (1977) quotes from a study by the Australian College of Education (1976):

> "The young people going into the workforce... were not being taught thoroughly the basic skills (of numeracy and literacy) which were required in employment, and the schools were not inculcating those attitudes of respect for authority and habits of work which employers considered important." (p.136)

Beltz also raises a number of questions about the practices of employers themselves. The issue of "credentialism" is pertinent here. There is a tendency on the part of employers to give undue weight to educational achievement, without necessarily analysing the requirements of the job to be filled. With the large numbers of young job seekers available, it is easy for employers to go for the highest achievers. But, is a better qualified person necessarily a better worker, more responsible, better motivated? A serious mismatch between qualifications and job requirements may lead to frustration, job dissatisfaction and more rapid "and costly" turnover. Beltz also questions the use of government subsidy schemes for the possibility that employers use subsidies only to their own advantage, without much consideration for the

young people involved and without providing a realistic training opportunity. Finally, he suggests that management decisions on structural arrangements can have an important bearing on the number of jobs available, the classic example being automation.

(b) Schools. Whether appropriate or not, education is looked to as the main agent in ameliorating the transition of young people into "the real world". (Beltz, 1978). Wright (1978) and Beltz (1978) write that schools have assumed too much responsibility in the past. They have become overburdened with responsibilities that were previously shared by the home, the church, employers and the community. For example, consumer education and religious education have come to be regarded as the domain of the school; transition issues have had to join the queue. The resulting pressure on the school curriculum has reduced the time available for traditional subjects and diluted the quality of all.

Schools can offer the student both information and simulated experience. The preparation of all youth for the world of work should be accomplished throughout the entire educational programme, for high school students are a product of their entire educational experience. Too often, career counselling has become mere crisis-counselling during the leaving year, or has been delayed until leaving has actually taken place. (Mihalka, 1974; Australian Working Party, 1976; Morgan, 1977; Swenson, 1977). The concept of vocation is dated; the life expectancy of occupations is continually being reduced. Today, most persons will not follow a single line of work, but may experience several different occupations in a lifetime. It is essential therefore that education create an

awareness in young people that they may have to retrain several times during their working life in order to meet the changing needs of the labour market. Avenues for re-entry to education and training must be kept open. In addition, the pace of change has prompted the familiar call for young persons to develop the skills of adaptation and adjustment to change - a call that has almost become a cliché. (Mihalka, 1974; Australian Working Party, 1976; Moor, 1976). Moor quotes from the Schools Council Working Paper, Number 40, 1972:

> 'It follows from this that the most-needed qualities of today's school leavers are adaptability and flexibility, together with basic skills that will enable them to undertake new and successful learning throughout their lives.' (p.15)

Yet there is little in the way of concrete proposals as to how these qualities might be achieved.

(c) Unions. A little controversial perhaps, as some awards have the effect of excluding young, unskilled workers from any possibility to acquire skills through on-the-job training. Yet Beltz suggests that while the immediate concern of unions is to safeguard the employment and working conditions of their members already in employment, there could be scope for their involvement in support services and training opportunities for unemployed youth. And they could also be instrumental in improving arrangements for work experience.

(d) Parents. As already mentioned, the available research evidence suggests that a great deal of influence is exerted on the career and vocational choices of young people, by their parents. However, this finding has yet to be fully

utilised - there remains a gulf between parents and schools. At best, parents may be informed about career education. But there is little real, meaningful involvement of parents.

> "Assuming that most parents, or those in the primary network around the student, still have a genuine interest in his or her future, it is important that their role and influence are recognized by those who professionally try to assist their children. If all parties involved can reach some consonance in their efforts for the young people involved, they would at least avoid conflicting advice and the confusion this creates in the minds of inexperienced youngsters."
> (Beltz, 1978, p.19a)

(e) Students. Studies of the way people find jobs show more of them do so on their own than through any formal placement service (Mihalka, 1974). The student must be prepared to understand that both looking for and holding a job is hard work and will require planning and preparation. The student must be "job ready".

> "Employers indicate that youthful workers are most likely to fail on their first job, not because of inability to do the work but, rather, because of problems in adjusting to supervision and fellow workers, or because of poor work habits, absenteeism, and lack of motivation."
> (Mihalka, 1974, p.75)

Suggestions aimed at smoothing the transition of young people between school and work have focussed both on the young people themselves, and on those groups concerned with the transition problems faced by young people. Moor

(1976) makes the suggestion that the transition from full-time school to full-time work should be made more gradually. Wrenn (1973) proposes alternating periods of educational and occupational experience. Similarly, the O.E.C.D., as cited in the Labour and Employment Gazette (1976), advocates a transition period between school and work in which young people receive vocational orientation and training as a bridge between general education and working life. A different approach is advocated by the Australian Working Party (1976) and Hopson (1973) as cited in Morgan (1977). These writers suggest that to ease the problems of adjustment to work, counselling should be made available to young people within the work situation when they first enter employment.

Secondly, due to the inclinations of young people to use family as a source of information, more could be done to make these sources as authoritative as possible. (Maizels, 1970). Reubens (1977) goes further by citing the research of Bazalgette who maintains that while the prevailing approach has been to direct transition services to the young people concerned, a more effective approach could be to shift the emphasis to creating personal and organisational relationships among the adults concerned with the transition of youth. Reubens writes:

> "A newer, perhaps controversial suggestion is that young people themselves should not be the main target of transition services, but rather that the schools, the parents, the employers, and the transition agencies should all be brought together to arrange the transition...." (p.227)

III. UNEMPLOYMENT

(1) The Problem

Unemployment has become a major problem and the number one concern of New Zealanders, as well as those of many other countries, in the last few years. We had come to expect that there would be work for everyone who wants a job. In the 1950s and 1960s, New Zealand became known around the world as a country of full employment. Since the mid-1970s however, there have simply not been enough jobs to go around.

Information about the unemployed in New Zealand is usually derived through official Department of Labour statistics on registered unemployment. In addition, statistics gathered from the five-yearly censuses and data from the Department's employment information surveys are available. The Labour and Employment Gazette regularly publish articles on employment in addition to the information in its statistical supplement. Press reports are issued monthly.

Statistics given in the September, 1983 edition of the Labour and Employment Gazette show a rise in the level of registered unemployment from 48,487 to 79,337 between July 1982 and July 1983. This represents an increase of 30,850 or 63.6 percent. Over the same period, the number of people engaged on job creation programmes increased steadily; refer to Figure 1.

Of particular concern is the high level of school-leaver unemployment and the growth in the number of long-duration unemployed. Figure 2 shows that unlike previous years, the number of unemployed school-leavers failed to decline significantly during the year. There were 6,559

school-leavers registered as unemployed in June 1983, compared with 3,540 the year before.

Fig. 1: Registered Unemployment and Job Creation Programmes

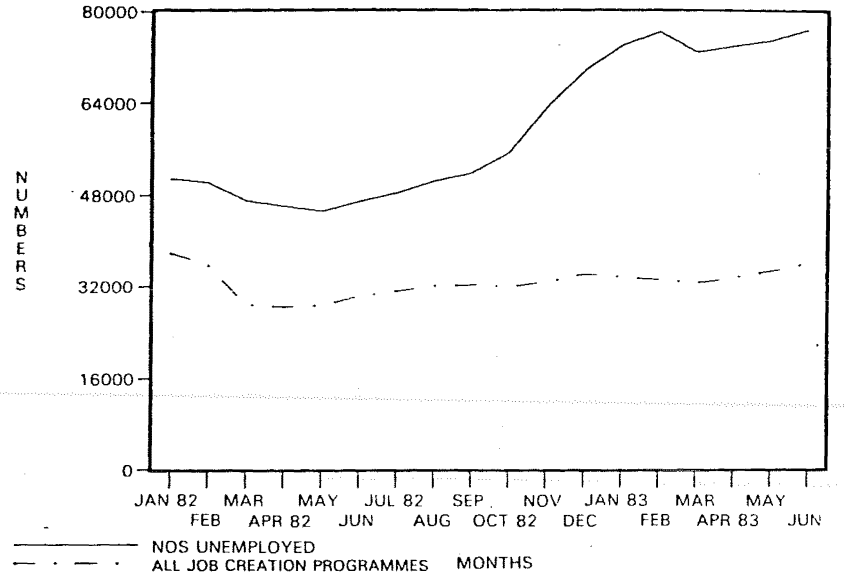
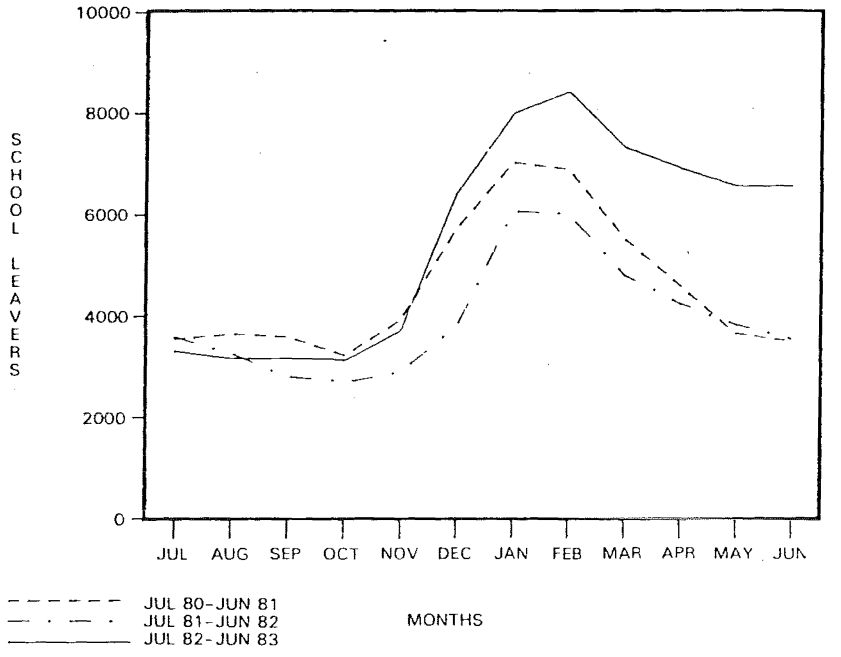


Fig. 2: Registered Unemployed School-Leavers



(Labour and Employment Gazette, September 1983, p.3)

Table 1 shows the distribution of unemployment in June 1982 and June 1983 by age and sex.

Table 1: Age and Sex of the Registered Unemployed

Age Group	June 1982			June 1983		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
School-leavers	1,260	2,280	3,540	2,746	3,813	6,559
15-19	6,362	6,835	13,197	10,235	9,403	19,638
20-24	7,478	4,720	12,198	13,268	7,262	20,530
25-29	4,541	1,734	6,275	8,209	2,718	10,927
30-39	4,095	1,707	5,802	7,567	2,316	9,883
40-59	4,065	1,762	5,827	6,711	2,413	9,124
60 +	135	26	161	184	23	207
TOTAL	27,936	19,064	47,000	48,920	27,948	76,868

(Labour and Employment Gazette, September 1983, p.3)

There have also been significant changes in the observed duration of unemployment as Table 2 shows. The number of people registered for more than 13 weeks has more than doubled over the 12 month period. As of June 1983 there are 31,000 such people; comprising 40.3 percent of the total unemployed compared with 32.6 percent in June 1982.

Table 2: Duration of Unemployment

	June 1982		June 1983	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
4 weeks or less	15,737	33.5%	18,741	24.4%
5-8 weeks	9,427	20.1%	15,737	20.5%
9-13 weeks	6,493	13.8%	11,390	14.8%
14-26 weeks	8,239	17.5%	17,364	22.6%
More than 26 weeks	7,104	15.1%	13,636	17.7%
(More than 13 weeks)	(15,343)	(32.6%)	(31,000)	(40.3%)
TOTAL	47,000		76,868	

(Labour and Employment Gazette, September 1983, p.4)

Riddell (1982) presents 1981 census figures showing New Zealand unemployment to be at 3.6 percent, as compared with 5-6 percent in Australia, 9 percent in the United States, 13 percent in Britain, and 10 percent in Europe as a whole. But he goes on to say that these figures are very misleading. New Zealand statistics are of the registered unemployed; overseas statistics tend to show a more accurate unemployment figure.

In truth, no country's employment statistics give a fully satisfactory picture of how serious unemployment is. (Holmes, 1979). Any estimate of the size of the problem of unemployment depends on just who are included among those regarded as unemployed.

> "The unemployment figures that we have [New Zealand] are seriously defective and the official figures of those registered as unemployed or on special work schemes are widely acknowledged to be seriously inadequate...."
>
> (Shannon, 1979, p.2)

The key word here is "registered", for in addition to those registered as unemployed, there will be many more who for some reason, have failed to do so. Consider, for example, married women, immigrants and persons under 16 years of age who are not eligible for the unemployment benefit and so have little incentive to register; school-leavers and students who may not seek work simply because they consider it futile to do so in the current economic climate; and those who prefer to avoid the stigma of being "on the dole" or who are so discouraged they have given up trying. Hence, the size of the unemployment problem is greater than has officially been

recognized. (Walsh, 1978; Shannon, 1979; MacLean, 1980; Riddell, 1982)

(2) Who are the Unemployed?

The effects of unemployment are not being felt equally by the whole community. When the figures are broken down, certain groups of people are shown to suffer unemployment disproportionately. In most countries it is the young and unskilled who are worst affected. Unemployment is further concentrated both geographically and by industrial classification. For still others, those denied overtime opportunities, on short time, remaining longer than they wished in educational institutions, or working at a job level below their capacity, the term underemployment may be more appropriate. (Australian Working Party, 1976; Beltz, 1978; Shannon, 1979; Holmes, 1979; Roberts et. al., 1982)

In New Zealand, a distortion appears in the age distribution of unemployment. According to official figures (Labour and Employment Gazette, 1983b), over 60 percent of the registered unemployed are less than 25 years old. It is further seen that females are more disadvantaged than males; that Maori and other Polynesian groups have a higher unemployment rate than European; that unskilled workers have a higher rate than skilled; and that some regions have more unemployment than others and so on.

While the impact of unemployment is being felt by all groups of working age, youth unemployment has been rising steadily since the 1960s in virtually all O.E.C.D. countries, and has become particularly chronic. The problem now falls most heavily on school-leavers seeking their first job, especially those with the lowest educational qualifications.

There is also evidence for growing numbers of young people remaining out of work for longer periods. Those leaving school at the earliest opportunity, with low or no qualifications, are also likely to remain unemployed the longest and to suffer unemployment more frequently. (O.E.C.D. Observer, 1977; Manpower Services Commission, 1978; Miller, 1973; Hopson and Scally, 1980).

Although levels of unemployment vary from country to country, overall, "... the outlook for O.E.C.D. nations remains bleak. Without growth in the world economy, which is not predicted to occur in the medium term, employment levels may fall and unemployment will continue to increase." (Labour and Employment Gazette, 1983a, p.6).

(3) Causes of Unemployment

The New Zealand Department of Labour (1981) sees the causes of unemployment as basically economic. Employment growth is fuelled by economic growth. The problem is that we can not produce enough to create more jobs, due to our insufficient overseas exchange.

The New Zealand economy depends heavily on imports of raw materials, machinery and equipment. Even though our exports have continued to increase, the growth of our economy has been seriously affected because New Zealand has still not been able to afford sufficient imports, and the number of new jobs created has been fewer than the number of people wanting to join the work-force. In other words, to support a greater number of jobs, a high level of overseas earnings is essential.

Holmes (1979) distinguishes three further causes of unemployment. First, inadequate confidence in enterprises to

expand production to the level needed for full employment. Second, occupational or geographical imbalances, i.e. a mismatch between job requirements and the skills and attitudes of people who want work. And third, rapid technological change which displaces labour, the problem being that the creation of new job opportunities are insufficient to cater for those displaced.

> "Full employment will only return when the economic problems facing New Zealand are dealt with. The major objectives of the Government's policies are to:
>
> - Reinvigorate the economy and so create full employment and confidence in New Zealand's future development;
> - Operate job and training programmes designed to provide meaningful work opportunities for as many as possible of the people who are unemployed."
>
> (Jobs and People, 1981, p.8)

(4) Causes of Youth Unemployment

In addition to the diverse factors causing unemployment in general, Melvyn and Freedman (1979) suggest the following more specific contributory factors that act as barriers to young people's access to employment:

(a) Hiring Costs. Employers prefer adults with acquired skills, experience and work discipline to unskilled young people with whom they associate higher training costs and turnover risks. Many employers are reluctant to hire youth because minimum wages can be higher than a young person's contribution to productivity.

(b) Work Attitudes. Reference is made to the allegedly negative attitudes of young people towards work, and particu-

larly towards jobs in industry.

> "Young people, regardless of their educational level, seem increasingly reluctant to accept authoritarian supervision, meaningless work assignments or a form of work organisation that deprives them of all initiative and responsibility."
> (Melvyn and Freedman, 1979, p.85)

(c) Abrupt transition from School to Work. There is concern that many young people are hard to employ or train because they lack the basic skills of numeracy, literacy and the ability to communicate. In addition, young people may undergo a certain amount of physical and psychological strain as they are moved suddenly from the protected environment of the school, into a harsh, competitive and production orientated work situation, where the performance and behaviour expected of them are very different from anything they have previously known.

(d) Loss of Training Places. There has been a decline in training opportunities and particularly the number of apprenticeships. Many manual jobs, largely filled by those with little or no training in the past, are now disappearing - often automated out of existence. The new jobs created are in smaller numbers and make demands which can not be met by inexperienced labour force entrants.

(e) Employment Security Measures. The employment of older, established workers in many countries is protected by redundancy legislation or collective bargaining agreements. Seniority practices also operate to the disadvantage of the younger worker. Seniority means job security: the principle of "last hired, first fired."

The problems of youth unemployment then go further than those of unemployment in general.

> "Evidence suggests youth unemployment is part of the general unemployment problem but that an upturn in the economy, which would help reduce the general level of unemployment, might still leave many young people unemployed because employers are more attracted to other workers, especially those with experience."
> (Manpower Services Commission, 1978, p.7)

In conclusion:

> "The problem of youth unemployment results from a complex interaction of economic, demographic, and social forces. It can neither be attributed to a single cause such as 'too much education', nor be expected to dissolve as economic growth revives.... the problem is a long-standing economic, social and political one."
> (O.E.C.D. Observer, 1977, p.33)

(5) Impact of Unemployment

Psychological studies of unemployment have their beginnings in the period of the Great Depression. A review of the literature on the effects of unemployment in the 1930s reveals both physiological and psychological impacts. (Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938). While it is obvious that the unemployed of today no longer face such a desperate situation - not the physical deprivations, malnutrition and poverty that was the lot of those unemployed in the earlier period - it has been common practice for researchers to believe that findings from investigations into the effects of unemployment conducted during the 1930s are equally valid now and "... that our

understanding of the psychological impact of unemployment is complete." (Gurney and Taylor, 1981, p.350). Gurney and Taylor (1981) however, in a recent paper questioning research on unemployment, reiterate the view expressed by Jahoda (1979) and Hartley (1980) that our knowledge of the psychological impact of unemployment is not in fact complete.

Studies carried out in the 1930s on the psychological effects of unemployment clearly show resignation as a major response. The study of an unemployed Austrian village by Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel (1933) using unobtrusive measures, showed that being unemployed is something very different from having leisure time. The unemployed did not enjoy their "leisure". They decreased their social activities, showed a disintegration of their sense of time, cared less and less for budgeting, and, while family relations lasted longer than other relations and activities, they too deteriorated. Because unemployment hit the entire community studied, Jahoda (1979) suggests this may have had a mitigating effect.

> "Other studies at that time of unemployed living amidst employed people showed demoralization and the loss of self-respect as the most devastating impact. The apparently obvious fact that in the depression unemployment was not the fault of the individual became less and less obvious to those who looked for work without success; irrational self-doubt and depressive moods took over."
>
> (Jahoda, 1979, p.309)

Finally, some of the early studies which dealt with the psychological deterioration of self-esteem and morale show that the process is not a smooth curve.

"More often the onset of unemployment produces an immediate shock effect which is followed by a period of almost constructive adaptation in which some enjoy their free time and may engage in active job search; but deterioration follows quickly with boredom and declining self-respect ending in despair or fatalistic apathy."

(Jahoda, 1979, p.310)

Hill, writing in 1978, noted the response to loss of a job was to go through phases similar to those noticed 40 years earlier. He outlined three discernible phases:

(i) Initial responses - most often the initial response was found to be one of denial and a feeling that nothing much had happened. The individual retains the same occupational identity as before and still describes himself by it. A certain amount of optimism allows the individual to regard himself merely as temporarily out of work and may treat the period as a holiday.

(ii) Intermediate phase - the euphoria associated with such initial responses quickly evaporates. Savings are exhausted, the holiday over, jobs around the house have been caught up with and the first few job applications have failed. The individual begins to accept the identity and standard of living of an unemployed person.

(iii) Settling down to unemployment - the anxiety, hope and struggle all decline after a time. Adjustment to the lifestyle is complete and

> although the individual may continue to look for work, there is now little real hope of success.

The similarities between the two periods - the 1930s and the unemployment situation of today - have led to the view that the impact of unemployment is now well understood and even complete. Kelvin (1981) writes:

> "The manifestations are by now well known: at a physical level there is lassitude, a slowing of movement, a loss of tone; psychologically there is boredom, depression, resignation; socially there is withdrawl from social contact, 'retreatism'. Time not only hangs heavy: much of one's sense of time seems to break down; actions seem purposeless." (p.8)

But a number of deficiencies have been pointed out in the early research, discrediting the use of 1930's findings to describe the contemporary unemployment situation. First, many of the early unemployment studies were not quite up to the standards now expected of social research. (Jahoda, 1979; Kasl, 1980; Gurney and Taylor, 1981).

Second, socio-economic conditions have changed so much since the 1930s that they may have altered the psychological impact of unemployment. (Jahoda, 1979, 1981; Gurney and Taylor, 1981). Jahoda (1979) notes that while unemployment in the 1930s reached frightening proportions, the Great Depression did follow a long period of intermittent unemployment. Unemployment now comes in the wake of 30 years of relatively full employment - a background which may present an even greater shock. Other significant changes are the

increased level of education in the population, and the predominance of different social values, the most relevant of these value changes being the demise of the Protestant Work Ethic. Also, it is possible that the improved standard of living of the unemployed today may lessen the impact. The unemployed continue to feel the economic pinch, but through the provisions of the welfare state, they fortunately no longer suffer acute physical deprivation. In addition, the health of the population has significantly improved since the 1930s. Garraty (1978) in his historical study of unemployment, concluded that "... the loss of work can no longer be the mass material and psychological catastrophe that it was during the great depression or at any earlier time." (p.250)

Third, much of the 1930s research overlooked some important conceptual distinctions, including for example, the failure to separate cause from effect, and to study in any detail the differing impact of unemployment on various kinds of people. (Gurney and Taylor, 1981)

But what has been added to our understanding of the psychological impact of unemployment since the 1930s? Jahoda (1979) reports that we know much less about it in a systematic way. This research of the literature yielded very few studies.

> "Moreover, Gurney (1980b) has argued that the evidence in the five studies from the early 1970s reviewed by Harrison [1976]... and even that in more recent studies... is either contradictory, or inconsistent with earlier findings. All of this suggests that it is not possible to declare with empirically based conviction that any single or multiple psychological effect inevitably and universally accompanies

unemployment."

(Gurney and Taylor, 1981, p.350)

(6) Impact of Youth Unemployment

"To want work and be unable to find it is painful at any age but youth unemployment has particular effects, both on the individual and on society. A lengthy period of frustration and enforced idleness when a person first enters the labour force can disable him or her, psychologically and in terms of experience, for later employment, with the result that large numbers... fail to function effectively in the economy."

(Ginzberg, 1980, p.43)

While international statistics consistently report that youth in general, and school-leavers in particular are highly represented among the unemployed, little is actually known about the impact that being unable to find work may have on those looking for their first permanent job. (Gurney, 1980). It seems reasonable to believe that the impact of unemployment may not necessarily be the same for school-leavers as for adults. In contrast to adults, who have already achieved a work identity and may find it possible to see unemployment as a social rather than a personal problem, school-leavers have no such established occupational identity or experience to sustain them. As a result, their experience can not primarily be one of loss, but rather one of frustrated progression (Gurney, 1980); their resulting sense of rejection and worthlessness may reinforce negative self images already established at school - the young people who are most vulnerable to unemployment are those who have already experienced "failure" against

the criteria of schools and have been looking forward to the freedom of independence that work will provide (Watts, 1978); and they are deprived of first-hand knowledge about the world of work, the opportunity to acquire responsibility, constructive work habits and experience through work and to establish an employment record - which in turn will influence future earnings and career possibilities. (Australian Working Party, 1976; Melvyn and Freedman, 1979; Ginzberg, 1980).

Carter (1966) writes that for those young people unemployed for even a short period of time, the experience can flavour their whole attitude toward work, coinciding as it does with the problems of adolescent maturation. Gurney (1980) takes up this theme:

> "Furthermore, since school-leavers generally make the transition from school to work during the adolescent years, the range of physical, emotional and social problems they have to deal with as part of their maturation may compound with the stresses of unemployment to make the whole experience more confusing than for the older person. This combination of factors could have added potential for long term psychological impact." (p.205)

In addition to costs to the individual, youth unemployment places society at risk. Young people without a stake in the system are more likely to become alienated and engage in anti-social behaviour. Unemployed youngsters have figured in incidents of violence, crime and social unrest. In addition, both an individual's mental and physical health may be affected. (Moor, 1976; Watts, 1978; Melvyn and Freedman, 1979; Shannon and Webb, 1979; Christchurch Unemployment Committee, 1979;

Ginzberg, 1980; Stafford et. al., 1980). The Study of Unemployed Youth in Christchurch (1979) cites Banks (1977) who refers to the frequency with which "unemployed" young patients are admitted to hospital for drug dependence and suicide or attempted suicide. While blame for this cannot be directly attributed to unemployment, there is little doubt that unemployment can exacerbate the depression which often characterises such admissions.

There are also potential long-term consequences for society which may be more serious. Unused labour cannot be stored and used later. Apart from this loss of potential output, what is to be feared is a "lost generation". (Watts, 1978; Melvyn and Freedman, 1979; Shannon and Webb, 1979). A recent O.E.C.D. paper (1977) suggests the consequences are likely to be threefold:

(i) Undermining the foundations of "human capital". "There will be a 'lost generation' for whom educational investment in 'human capital' will be partially depleted, and skills, productive work experience, and even the will to work itself will be substantially eroded." (p.33)

(ii) Deteriorating social integration among young people. The lack of social integration through work is likely to go hand in hand with more general anti-social behaviour, resulting in high social costs, of crime, delinquency and violence.

(iii) Detrimental "feedback" to school children. Family atmosphere where young adults are out of work for considerable periods will probably

> encourage negative attitudes to study and work on the part of children still attending school, i.e. the effects of youth unemployment are likely to pervade the following generation as well.

As a final note, Roberts, Duggan and Noble (1982) seek to point out that youth unemployment is often less than a calamity as was thought, for those most seriously affected. Their analysis emphasises the ability of young people at greatest risk of unemployment to devise their own coping strategies.

> "Many of the young unemployed are not so desperate that they will seize any work that confers identity and structures time. Their self-confidence and respect are not under such assault that they will grasp any support...the young people at greatest risk can generally cope with their problems without sinking into long-term joblessness, or personal and social dis-organisation." (p.10)

(7) Attempted Remedies

Melvyn and Freedman (1979) outline the following attempted remedies for youth unemployment:

(a) School-To-Work Transition Programmes. Vocational courses and Work Experience Programmes have been developed to give practical experience of working life and to help young people decide on the type of work that would suit them in the future. In New Zealand, Work Experience classes were established in the early 1960s for pupils of limited ability. Since then, Work Exploration Programmes have been developed as part of the normal curriculum to prepare a wider range of

pupils for working life. In recent years, many schools have gone even further, setting up their own special Transition Courses, with a strong component of Work Exploration, job seeking skills, and emphasis on communication, numeracy and the social skills of working with others. (Jobs and People, 1981; N.Z. Listener, 1982)

Support for Work Experience Programmes was given by employers in the Manpower Services Commission study (1978), and more recently, Stafford (1982) found that the Youth Opportunities Programme, offering opportunities for training and work experience, acts as a buffer, alleviating the detrimental psychological effects of unemployment.

(b) Training. The chance of acquiring a job appears better for young persons who have undergone some kind of training, than for those without skills. Polytechnics and community colleges are now also involved in special pre-employment programmes specifically designed to upgrade the social and occupational skills of young people without work. The Young Persons Training Programme (YPTP) provides short-term basic training for young job-seekers in a number of social or non-apprenticable skills. There is also the Work Skills Development Programme (WSDP) which aims to develop basic skills through work and associated training, and in addition, a number of schemes have been introduced to assist the recruitment and training of apprentices. The School-leavers Training and Employment Preparation Scheme (STEPS) is a new programme aimed specifically at 15- and 16-year olds, offering individually tailored combinations of training and work experience. (Jobs and People, 1981; N.Z. Listener, 1982)

Training cannot ensure jobs at the completion of a course however. Such courses must be based on a demand for a particular skill. If no extra jobs are created, training may help to solve an individual's unemployment problem, but will only do so at the expense of another person. (Reubens, 1979; Scott, 1979). Reubens (1979) presents the following analogy of the game of musical chairs:

> "It's a game in which somebody has to lose, if the game is played in the normal way. Somebody has to go 'out' every time. If, as the game is played, a certain type of person loses every single time and we don't think this is right, we begin to think of ways of picking the losers a little more equally. We can train the disadvantaged players to run around the chairs as well as the others do. Soon the losers would constitute a cross-section of the whole population, instead of being just the disadvantaged. That is to say unemployment would be distributed more equitably. An alternative way of looking at this is that musical chairs may not be the right game to play. We should ask for more chairs so everyone gets at least one seat. Maybe there should even be a couple of extra chairs so that people can have a choice of chairs." (p.12)

(c) Employment Subsidies. The initial costs of employing young people may be offset through a variety of government employment subsidies. Subsidies are a means of stimulating the creation of additional jobs, especially in the private sector. But their value is limited to the extent that employers respond with jobs that they would have created

anyway, dismiss workers when the subsidies are terminated, or redistribute existing jobs rather than increasing total employment.

(d) Job Creation Programmes. These are direct efforts by governments to provide work for groups experiencing difficulty finding jobs. Public works projects are common. A major criticism of most job creation schemes has been the shortness of the project period. People who have got used to coping on a benefit do not always want to be referred to a temporary job, knowing they will have to adjust again when the job finishes in three or six months. (Jackson, 1983). Still, properly carried out, special job creation projects can provide participants with some basic skills and work experience, and at the same time serve community needs.

(8) Preparation for Unemployment

Fleming and Lavercombe (1982) suggest that it is accepted among professionals that ideal ways of working with youngsters facing unemployment are not immediately apparent. Many professionals working both with unemployed young people and with those at risk of unemployment, find it difficult to talk to them about "such a negative subject" as unemployment. In schools, there is a hostility to the concept of "preparation for unemployment". Teachers fear that this implies conditioning a group of students to accept unemployment as inevitable - that the prophecy may become self-fulfilling, and they are concerned about the implications of labelling a group in this way. (Watts, 1978; Lavercombe and Fleming, 1981). Yet Hopson and Scally (1980) write that the implications for education are clear. Young people must be trained in how to cope with unemployment psychologically; they will need job hunting

skills, self marketing skills, and knowledge of how to get information on retraining opportunities, government grants and schemes, and further and higher education options. It appears that both preparation in schools for the possibility of unemployment and the ways in which professionals talk to young people about unemployment vary substantially. (Fleming and Lavercombe, 1982).

Lavercombe and Fleming (1981) found that contrary to their expectations, it may not be possible to recognise, through the use of attitude measures, those pupils who are at risk of longer periods of unemployment and thus in particular need of information, skills and psychological support. They suggest therefore that school programmes aimed at preparing young people for the possibility of unemployment should be provided for all pupils, not only those felt by teachers to be at risk. Bedford (1979) presents such a programme, aimed both at providing "... knowledge, skills and understanding of attitudes to cope with an extended period of unemployment..." and secondly to make those less likely to face unemployment better informed "... about the effects of the recession and society on individuals." (p.7). Thus, the programme could be used for differing audiences.

Watts (1977) writes "... the aim would not be preparation for unemployment, but preparation for adult roles in a society in which paid employment might not always be available." (p.236)

(9) A Place for Leisure

Recreation is becoming an increasingly important activity in the life of an individual as the need for work declines. Reductions in overtime and part-time work

opportunities, longer holidays and earlier retirements have led to more free-time for numbers of people. In addition, the current unemployment situation means that many people, particularly the young, will have long periods without work. The changing work scene with increases in automation and reductions in personal involvement also means that opportunities for finding satisfying work are diminishing, particularly for the unskilled workforce. (Mihalka, 1974; Beddoe, 1980)

Few secondary schools are familiar with the concept of recreation guidance. Yet there is an increasing need for education and guidance in using leisure time effectively. The emphasis that is given now in education to the preparation of youth for work, must also be directed to the preparation of young people for free-time, especially in the face of enforced free-time due to unemployment. Beddoe (1980) suggests that work experience can be interspersed with leisure experience, giving students an opportunity to try out leisure activities as well as work ones.

(10) The Notion of Work

"Work - the systematic pursuit of an objective valued by oneself (even if only for survival) and desired by others; directed and consecutive, it requires the expenditure of effort. It may be compensated (paid work) or uncompensated (volunteer work or an avocation). The objective may be intrinsic enjoyment of the work itself, the structure given to life by the work role, the economic support which work makes possible or the type of leisure which it facilitates." (Super (1976), as cited in Herr and Cramer, 1979, p.31)

Why work? The most obvious motivation might appear to be financial. Work for most is the means to an end of earning a living. Yet many workers seek more than remuneration from their work - it is an important and possibly vital part of human existence. Zytowski (1968) suggests that work provides a major source of satisfaction in adult life;

> "... it is the way in which a man knows he is, or that it is his link to reality. The answer to the question 'Who is he?' is frequently given in terms of that person's occupation." (p.v)

For most people, having a job serves a number of different functions. Morse and Weiss (1955) write: "Working gives... a feeling of being tied in the larger society, of having something to do, of having a purpose in life." (p.8). Miller (1973) and Kelvin (1981) see work as an individual's source of identity. Although there is much ambivalence towards it - people frequently dislike the work they do yet are distressed when they are without work i.e. they want work even while they hate it (Jahoda, 1979) - Kelvin argues that work is central to an individual's self concept, as a source of values and structure to life.

The finding of meanings to work other than the economic is consistent with observations of the effects of retirement and unemployment. For these people, even unpleasant ties to reality are preferable to their absence. (Morse and Weiss, 1955; Jahoda, 1981). Jahoda (1981) suggests the following "latent" consequences of being employed which help to understand the motivation to work that goes beyond earning a living; and by the same token to help explain why unemployment is psychologically destructive.

"First, employment imposes a time structure on the waking day; second employment implies regularly shared experiences and contacts with people outside the nuclear family; third, employment links individuals to goals and purposes that transcend their own; fourth, employment defines aspects of personal status and identity; and finally, employment enforces activity." (p.188)

"Now it is of course, true that the latent or manifest consequences of other social institutions - schools, voluntary work, clubs, etc. - can produce one or more of these psychological supports. I know of none, however, in our society which combines them all and, in addition, has as compelling a manifest reason as making one's living."

(Jahoda, 1979, p.313)

CHAPTER III

PITCAITHLY HOUSE: VOCATIONAL CENTRE

I. GENERAL OUTLINE

Pitcaithly House is the setting for the Department of Education's Vocational Centre in Christchurch. Administered from Hagley High School, and developed as an outpost of Hagley High School's "Transition to Work" programme, Pitcaithly House was established in 1979 in response to an increasing level of unemployment and job placement difficulties. The scheme was initially developed to cope with those students termed "reluctant returnees"; that is those who intended leaving school at the very first opportunity. But it has since expanded to meet the needs of a variety of senior high school students.

Today, Pitcaithly House is managed by the Co-ordinator, Mrs Maureen Doherty, and is staffed by two additional tutors and a secretary. In addition, a number of resource people from the city at large bring their experience to Pitcaithly House to aid in the teaching of Social Survival topics. Pitcaithly House operates Monday to Friday, 8.45am to 3.00pm, through all teaching terms and some weeks of school holiday periods. Initially the number of students attending each course was approximately 12, but this has increased slightly over the years, as demand for the services offered has increased. Pitcaithly House tutors are all currently involved in running additional programmes off-site, which

has also increased the numbers of students participating. As an example, late in the third term of 1982, a week-long course was held at Van Asch College for the deaf, using interpreters to aid communication.

High school students from both city schools and outlying district schools (and some unemployed youth at times) are eligible to attend a Pitcaithly House Course. Liaison between Pitcaithly House and those students interested in attending is channelled through a school "contact" person. In most cases this is the Guidance Counsellor, Careers Advisor, or "Transition-To-Work" Tutor, (or in the case of unemployed youth, Employment Officers and Vocational Guidance Advisors, from the Department of Labour). While the majority of students referred to Pitcaithly House have been identified as intending school-leavers, others are unsure about making the transition from school to work. Still others are exam-orientated and attend during the school holidays in preparation for the day upon which they will finally leave school. To ensure that Pitcaithly House programmes are relevant and useful to the students' diverse needs, interests, academic abilities and vocational preferences, students may elect to attend one of three types of course available, the content depending on the duration of the course. Generally, the more help the student requires, the more appropriate is a longer course:

A. Vocational

1. A two-week Vocational programme.
2. A one-week Vocational programme, covering the basics of the full course.
3. A two-day Vocational programme, teaching "highlights" only.

B. Social Survival

4. A one-week Social Survival Skills Course is available in addition to the Vocational Courses offered.

II. THE NEED FOR EVALUATION

The purpose of any evaluation is to identify strengths and weaknesses, with the view of improving or upgrading an existing programme. (London, 1973). Evaluation of the Pitcaithly House programme to date has been limited. Although a number of post-course questionnaires have provided some feedback of student responses to various aspectsof the programme, a more formal evaluation of courses has been called for since their inception. Reubens (1977) predicts that competing claims for limited resources will result in increased attention to the need for evaluation. At Pitcaithly House certainly, there is a need for evaluation, to establish the House as a permanent Vocational Centre; thereby giving increased recognition and hence funding from the Department of Education. Such evaluation would also be instrumental in providing feedback to the staff on the effectiveness of their efforts.

Effective evaluation must be planned, and the goals and objectives that the programme seeks to accomplish must be clearly defined.

It is preferable, where possible, to use a standardized instrument, to measure any growth or change in a subject's behaviour as it relates to the course objectives. (London, 1973; Herr and Cramer, 1979). Yet, as London (1973) writes,

however necessary it may be to use carefully designed studies, such programmes defy evaluation. Problems exist with respect to the inherent difficulties in the measurement of any changes, and in the possibility that benefits derived from a particular programme may be delayed in materialising. Criteria for success of a given programme may also vary among interested parties. Swenson (1977) writes that more often than not, accountability is synonymous with employability. The Department of Education certainly rates the employment of Pitcaithly House graduates as of prime importance in the evaluation of these courses. Yet staff are aware of other possible significant outcomes, including for example, the formulation of definite career plans, the relevance of these choices, and/or the decision to stay at school to gain appropriate qualifications.

An information leaflet distributed by Pitcaithly House states that the overall aim of the Centre is to provide a bridge to aid secondary school students in their transition to the world of work. To ease the transition from one to the other by "... increasing individual self-confidence, self-awareness, diminishing feelings of inadequacy, developing positive aspects of character and emphasising the roles continuing education and leisure/recreation play in the world of work." Four broad objectives were identified in 1980, and are currently retained as course intentions:

"1. To enhance students' personal abilities and vocational orientation.

2. To help students become more employable.

3. To improve their job retention skills and chances of career satisfaction.

4. To prepare young people for their future roles as adults in a consumer-orientated society."

When asked by the writer to define the objectives that the Pitcaithly House programmes aim to accomplish, staff identified the following three goals:

"1. To clarify vocational aims (career awareness).
2. To develop personal confidence and ability as regards job seeking skills.
3. To develop social confidence through life/ coping skills."

With respect to the first goal, it should be noted that when students first come to Pitcaithly House they vary widely in the degree to which they have made decisions about a future career. For those who as yet have no definite plans, it may be useful to help them establish certain broad areas of occupational interest. For others, whose minds are made up, it may be necessary to widen their interests - to present possible employment alternatives - in the light of today's tightening of job opportunities. Overall, it is hoped that Pitcaithly House may "... foster a sharper awareness of career possibilities which are accepted as appropriate goals by the students themselves." (Thomson)

Mihalka (1974) writes that for a job-hunting course to be effective, it must not limit itself to such things as the application form, resumé and interview, but needs to go further; programmes must develop the attitudes that will generate initiative and motivation to put into practice the skills and techniques that will improve chances of success. Attitude and motivation appear to be key factors that control a person's behaviour while seeking work. Looking for a job

is hard work in itself and students need to establish coping behaviours that will deal with both failure and success. This dual emphasis in a programme, upon practical job-seeking skills and also life/coping skills, is apparent in the two remaining Pitcaithly House goals. Pitcaithly House aims to develop job-seeking skills, and in addition, it is placing increasing emphasis on the life/coping skills area of the courses, including the areas of self-management, self-awareness, confidence, assertiveness and sociability.

Practically speaking, although the actual topics taught in Pitcaithly House courses vary according to the availability of resource staff, the length of course and the student composition, the Vocational Courses are seen as comprising four facets:

1. Who am I? (Career orientation)
2. How do I get an interview?
3. The interview itself.
4. An "umbrella" of life skills presented throughout the course.

The following is an outline of the longer Vocational Course:

1. Interpersonal Skills: These include understanding yourself, assertiveness training, confidence building, relating to others in work and leisure, decision-making, values, goals and so on.
2. Vocational Orientation and Guidance: Each student on a longer course receives an interview with a Vocational Guidance Counsellor.
3. Finding a Job: This involves use of the "Yellow Pages", employment agencies, the Department of Labour, correct interpretation of advertisements,

the professional version of "knocking on doors" and so on.

4. Work Exploration: A day of work exploration is offered to each student.

5. Applying for a Job: This includes practice in letter writing, telephoning and applying in person, both directly in response to an advertisement or as a general inquiry. Each student constructs a "Curriculum Vitae" as part of an interview kit. Interview skills are strongly emphasised and every student is put through an actual interview.

Refer to Table 18, Appendix II, for an outline of a sample Two-Week Vocational Course.

Finally, although not directly applicable to this study, the following topics are often included in the one-week, Social Survival Skills Course, (attended only by those students who have previously attended a Vocational Course):

Banking, budgeting, politics, taxation, credit/HP/accounts, continuing education, the role of the police, leisure/recreation, flatting, family planning, consumer rights, alternative life styles, and communication.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

I. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A self-administered questionnaire, consisting of three distinct parts, was developed in association with Mr Gerald Thomson and the Pitcaithly House Staff, for the purpose of evaluating the Pitcaithly House Courses.

Babbie (1979) notes that several different points must be considered in the design of the questionnaire. First, there is the general format. Questions must be well spaced out, clear and uncluttered. The ordering of individual questions is also important, for it is possible that the ideas presented in certain questions may affect the replies of subsequent items. While it may be tempting to randomize questions of a particular theme, it is preferable that they be grouped in a logical order - providing the researcher is aware of these possible effects. Both Brigham (1975) and Babbie (1979) write that the interest and motivation of subjects is a critical factor which should be reflected in both the overall design of the questionnaire, and in the wording of individual questions. Unless both the length and content of the questionnaire is appropriate to maintain the interest of the respondents, "... valuable information may be lost and spurious responses introduced." (Brigham, 1975, p.91). It is recommended that the self-administered questionnaire begin with the most interesting,

but least threatening questions. Duller, demographic data should be placed last.

The wording of the individual questions can also have a considerable effect on the results obtained. (Sinclair, 1975; Oppenheim, 1966). One of the most important principles is to avoid ambiguity. The questionnaire must say exactly what was intended, and must be interpreted by the respondent in the way intended. In terms of structure, the questions may be either open (subjects compose their own answers) or closed (subjects choose an answer from a given set). Sinclair (1975, p.76) lists the following advantages and disadvantages of closed questions:

(a) They clarify the alternatives for the respondent.

(b) They reduce coding errors in analysis.

(c) They eliminate the useless answer.

The disadvantages are:

(a) It is difficult to make the alternatives mutually exclusive.

(b) It is difficult to ensure that they cover the total response range.

(c) They create a forced-choice situation which rules out marginal or unexpected answers.

(d) All the alternative answers must seem equally logical or attractive.

(e) In complex or difficult questions, subjects may dive for the safety and ease of the 'don't know' alternative.

Other points to consider when devising individual questions include the use of the language of the population; using

short rather than long words, avoiding the use of scientific or professional jargon; using short questions, avoiding double negatives and complex questions that can lead to error or those that contain vague phrases; and leading questions must clearly be avoided.

Keeping all the above considerations in mind, development of the writer's questionnaire progressed as follows. Ideas for possible questionnaire items were acquired through extensive interviewing of Mr Gerald Thomson and the Pitcaithly House staff; a two-week period of direct observation; and by referring to Buros (1978), and Crites' Vocational Development Inventory in Glass and Thomson (1977). A comprehensive list of possible questions was then made up, from which the actual questionnaire items could later be drawn, and if necessary, modified. A combination of both structured and open questions was used. Once complete, this list was presented for comment to the writer's thesis supervisors and those at Pitcaithly House. As previously outlined, the number of questions was reduced, and also the length, wording and formality of some items - an overall simplification. Also, it was suggested that in addition to the main questionnaire and the demographic data, it might be useful to study the student's view of Pitcaithly House once a course was completed, hence the development of several "after course" questions, following a similar procedure. The final product consists of a questionnaire in three distinct parts:

Part I: "Pitcaithly House Evaluation Questionnaire"

Part II: "Background Information"

Part III: "After Course Questions"

(Refer to Appendix)

II. ADMINISTRATION

(1) Experimental Design

The experimental design chosen as most appropriate for this evaluation was the quasi-experimental, "non-equivalent control group design", represented as follows:

Experimental Group: T_1 X T_2

Control Group: T_1 T_2

The questionnaire is administered twice to both experimental and control groups, T_1 and T_2. However, the experimental group alone is exposed to the intervention, X (in this case, participating in a Pitcaithly House Course), between testings. In this manner, it is possible to determine any change in experimental subject's responses to the questionnaire, before and after a particular course, as compared with those of the control group.

This particular design is often used in educational settings, where it is not possible to randomly assign subjects to groups. Rather, subjects must be assigned to a control group that is as comparable as possible to the experimental group. The more similar the two groups and their scores on the first test/administration, the more effective the control group will be. But the possibility of some unknown, critical difference existing initially between the two groups, should always be allowed for.

The experimental design therefore, involved two complete administrations of the "Pitcaithly House Evaluation Questionnaire" to both the experimental and the control groups. In addition, both the experimental and control groups completed the "Background Information" section of the questionnaire

during the first administration. The experimental group alone completed the "After Course Questions", immediately following the second administration of the main questionnaire.

(2) Subjects

(a) Experimental Group. The decision was made to limit the evaluation to Vocational Courses of one- or two-weeks duration only, because:

(i) the differences between these course and the two-day Vocational Course (aimed at the brighter, "exam-orientated" student, and omitting some material) limit any meaningful comparison;

(ii) the initial emphasis of Pitcaithly House was upon the "reluctant returnees", who required the longer courses;

(iii) the Social Survival Skills Course is distinct in itself.

Accordingly, the questionnaire was administered to six different course groups - four, One-Week Vocational Courses and two, Two-Week Vocational Courses - over a one month period, early in the third term, 1982. (Refer to Table 57, Appendix I). Although the number of subjects initially involved was 67, a number of these were unavailable for the second administration, or turned in an incomplete paper. The final experimental sample consisted of 53 students, of whom 40 were female, and only 13 were male.

The first administration of the questionnaire took place on a Monday morning, as soon as the group had been brought together for the first time. The writer was intro-

duced to the group by the tutor, who was then free to leave. Following a brief explanation, Parts I and II of the Questionnaire were distributed, to be worked on individually by the students at their own pace. The writer remained present throughout the administration, to clarify any questions should they arise, and to supervise the completion of the questionnaire. The papers took approximately 50-60 minutes to complete, after which they were collected, and those students were allowed to talk quietly among themselves until all had finished. The students were then thanked for their co-operation, and returned to their tutor.

The second administration of the questionnaire was scheduled to occur on the Friday afternoon, just after lunch, rather than at the end of the day when it was thought that student attention would begin to stray. Following a similar procedure, Parts I and III of the questionnaire were distributed and completed.

(b) Control Group. Administration of the questionnaire to control groups involved approaching several schools that were representative of those who had already sent students to the Vocational Courses studied. The initial contact in each case was made by Gerald Thomson, who sought permission, explained what would be required and arranged an interview for the writer with the appropriate contact person (guidance tutor). Following this interview, the control groups were arranged by matching students as closely as possible to those who had taken part in Vocational Courses, in terms of age, sex, form, qualifications gained and presently studying for, and where possible, to parents' occupational status. A time and place were then arranged for the

administrations, which were conducted as outlined above. Parts I and II were used at the first administration and Part I alone at the second administration, approximately one week later. The time lapse between administrations to the control groups and to the experimental groups to which they had been matched was generally two to three weeks.

Control group subjects were drawn from the following Christchurch schools: Aranui High School, Avonside Girls High School, Burnside High School, Christchurch Girls High School, Hagley High School, Hillmorton High School and Papanui High School. Again, a small number of subjects were lost due to their absence from the second administration. The 55 initial control subjects were trimmed to 49, of whom 38 were female and 11 were male.

III. QUANTIFICATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

All data derived from the questionnaire was coded and punched onto cards. In the case of the 'closed' questions, this process was straightforward, responses to the 'open' questions however required classification into a system of categories or 'coding frames'. For each question it was necessary to select a representative sample of responses, upon which it was possible to impose a set of classificatory categories in the manner prescribed by Oppenheim (1966). All punched cards were then read onto computer disc and the data were analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

IV. POSSIBLE BIASES IN EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

(1) Control Group Selection

It is possible that since those students chosen as control subjects had not been selected to attend a Pitcaithly House Course, they might in some way be distinguished from the experimental subjects who had attended. The influence that this initial difference may have had on results must be taken into consideration.

(2) Administration

The use of the same questionnaire (Part I) at both the first and second administrations may have had some influence on those participating. The writer found it was difficult to satisfactorily explain the reasoning behind the use of the same questionnaire, without actually biasing the responses. Control group subjects in particular may have been sensitized to the need for a second administration by the tutors who had to arrange this testing. Students would therefore have been aware in advance that further assessment was about to take place. It was also interesting to note that control subjects appeared more highly motivated to complete the questionnaire than did experimental subjects, especially during the second administration. The writer attributes this to the enthusiasm exhibited by experimental subjects at the end of a course, finding the questionnaire getting in the way of their early leaving; compared to the control subjects who probably enjoyed the time out from their regular school classes.

(3) Absenteeism

A number of questionnaires from the first administration had to be discarded due to absenteeism at the second session. (See above). Bias is possible according to the degree to which these subjects were atypical of the sample.

(4) Coding

Although care was taken and the data checked, experimenter bias is a possibility in the subjective judgements necessary for the coding of the open-ended questions. Ideally, this possible source of bias could have been controlled by the use of a second 'coder'. Unfortunately however, this was not practical.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

I. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The statistical analyses appropriate to the data were determined by the level of measurement of the data. Response categories were generally discrete, and the level of measurement was generally nominal or weakly ordinal. To attempt analysis using techniques assuming any higher level of measurement than this would have meant the introduction of statistical error.

In the first instance, statistical analysis consisted of a straightforward frequency count of response categories for all questions. The results were presented in absolute terms and as a percentage of the total set of responses. Because many of the 'open' questions had multiple categories of response i.e. it was possible for the subject to mention more than one category, it is possible that the response rate in these cases exceeds 100 percent.

Observation of the frequency data indicated which variables would benefit from further analysis. To identify any significant changes of response in experimental subjects following treatment (a Pitcaithly House Course), the non-parametric Chi-Square Test (Siegel, 1956) was applied to difference profiles, as a means of incorporating the control group data. The following worked example should clarify the procedure.

Question 3, Part I: "In what ways do you think going to work will be different from going to school?"

On the first administration, or pre-test, 15 experimental subjects indicated the first response category, "hours and holidays", while 38 subjects did not. On the post-test, the totals were 17 subjects as opposed to 36. Difference scores for the experimental group are thus 2, -2. A corresponding calculation yields difference scores of 4, -4 for the control subjects:

	Yes	No
Experimental Group	2	-2
Control Group	4	-4

A constant of 31 was added to all data, this being the minimum constant required to convert all table entries to positive numbers.

	Yes	No	Total
Experimental Group	33	29	62
Control Group	35	27	62
Total	68	56	124

x^2 is computed by the following formula which incorporates a correction for continuity (Siegel, 1956, p.107):

$$x^2 = \frac{N(|AD-BC|-\frac{N}{2})^2}{(A+B)(C+D)(A+C)(B+D)} \quad df = 1$$

$$x^2 = \frac{124(|133.27-29.351|-\frac{124}{2})^2}{62.62.68.56}$$

$$= 0.03256$$

The computed value of x^2 is less than the critical value of 3.841 for the 0.05 level, hence there is

no statistically significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning this variable after treatment.

Since an enormous amount of data was generated by the analyses, only that which produced results of significance or special interest will be included in the text; the remainder may be found in the Appendix.

II. PART I "PITCAITHLY HOUSE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE"

The following is a summary of the variables surveyed, the results obtained, an assessment of significance where appropriate, the relevant tables and a discussion of the results. Unless specified otherwise, results will be presented in the following order: Experimental Group, First Administration; Experimental Group, Second Administration; Control Group, First Administration; Control Group, Second Administration. The figure (m) will be used to identify questions that allow for multi-responses.

(1) Importance of Contacts

Analysis of the opening statement reveals two main categories of response. (Table 19, Appendix II). A number of subjects mentioned the importance of "contacts" over "qualifications" in both the experimental and control groups (38.5 percent; 20.8 percent; 38.8 percent; 44.9 percent).

E.g.: "It doesn't matter what qualifications you have, but if you know someone who works there you could get a job."

A slightly greater number of subjects mentioned the importance of "contacts" alone (39.6 percent; 54.7 percent; 49.0 percent; 46.9 percent).

E.g.: "That if you know the right people you could get a job."

(2) Intention to Leave School

Subjects were asked when they planned to leave school (Table 20, Appendix II). Results for both groups show that the greatest number of students indicated that they would leave school only when they had a definite job to go to (47.2 percent; 43.4 percent; 44.9 percent; 44.9 percent). It is also interesting to note that many more experimental as opposed to control group subjects indicated that they would leave at the end of the school year. (34.0 percent; 39.6 percent; 18.4 percent; 18.4 percent). It is possible that the experimental group on the whole were more determined to leave school than the control group. After all, they are the students who have attended a Pitcaithly House Course. The control group on the other hand may be prepared to stay at school and gain better qualifications, in preference to leaving school and becoming jobless.

E.g.: "Will leave after School Certificate."

Such an initial difference, although small, was inherent in the way that the control groups were chosen and could not be avoided.

(3) Differences Between School and Work (m)

Of the many categories of difference perceived to exist between school and work, money was high on the list for both groups (60.4 percent; 45.3 percent; 57.1 percent; 53.1 percent).

E.g.: "You will be earning money to support yourself... you will be independent."

"Earn money and take on new responsibilities." Others include the loss of holidays and working hours (28.3 percent; 32.1 percent; 12.2 percent; 20.4 percent).

E.g.: "The hours will be different."

"You will have to be prepared to work harder, it's a longer day."

The need to mix with a wide variety of other people was also indicated (22.6 percent; 35.8 percent; 28.6 percent; 24.5 percent).

E.g.: "You will be mixing with older and a lot more different kinds of people."

So too, mention was made of the different environment (18.9 percent; 28.3 percent; 18.4 percent; 10.2 percent).

E.g: "At work you are treated like an adult."

Results indicate that students are aware of a number of differences existing between school and work. Primary emphasis is on remuneration, followed by an awareness of physical differences as outlined by Carter (1966) and several social differences. Table 21, Appendix II, summarises the full range of differences.

(4) Worries About the Transition (m)

In spite of the number of differences subjects pointed out as existing between school and work, very few would admit to worries about making the transition. (Table 22, Appendix II). The highest category of response was that 'nothing worries' (49.1 percent; 54.7 percent; 34.7 percent; 40.8 percent). A number did however worry about having to meet new people and working in an environment where they did not know anyone (24.5 percent; 26.4 percent; 30.6 percent; 28.6 percent).

E.g.: "What the people I work with will be like."
"I'm a bit nervous I may not get on with the people."

(5) General Statement of Difficulty in Getting a Job

The majority of subjects from both experimental and control groups agreed that it is harder to get a job today than it was 10 years ago (84.9 percent; 96.2 percent; 79.6 percent; 83.7 percent). Refer to Table 23, Appendix II.

(6) Personal Degree of Difficulty in Getting a Job

Responses ranged from 'extremely hard' to 'easy'. (Table 24, Appendix II). Most subjects however thought it would be 'hard' for them to get a job (39.6 percent; 32.1 percent; 38.8 percent; 20.4 percent). Followed by a response of 'very hard' (22.6 percent; 32.1 percent; 20.4 percent; 26.5 percent).

(7) Causes of Unemployment (m)

Subjects perceived very many different causes of unemployment, which was to be expected, due to the complexity of the problem. (Table 3). Of all the different variables mentioned, two yielded significant results. There was a significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'technological change', following treatment.

$x^2 = 4.9$, $p < 0.05$ (26.4 percent; 52.8 percent; 30.6 percent; 32.7 percent).

E.g.: "Because of increased technology."
"Increased use of computers and machines."

There was also a significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'married women', after treatment.

Table 3: What Subjects Perceived to be the Causes of Unemployment

Causes	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Early leaving	10	18.9	13	24.5	9	18.4	8	16.3
2. Immigration	5	9.4	0	0	4	8.2	6	12.2
3. Technological	14	26.4	28	52.8	15	30.6	16	32.7
4. Economic	15	28.3	20	37.7	15	30.6	13	26.5
5. Over-population	12	22.6	29	54.7	7	14.3	16	32.7
6. Married Women	1	1.9	15	28.3	1	2.0	1	2.0
7. Government	4	7.5	3	5.7	3	6.1	4	8.2
8. Employers	4	7.5	1	1.9	6	12.2	4	8.2
9. Greed	7	13.2	9	17.0	6	12.2	5	10.2
10. Competition	3	5.7	1	1.9	3	6.1	4	8.2
11. Lazy people	7	13.2	2	3.8	8	16.3	6	12.2
12. Not enough jobs	16	30.2	11	20.8	13	26.5	16	32.7
13. Other	18	34.0	9	17.0	24	49.0	19	38.8
TOTAL	116	218.8	141	266.1	114	232.5	118	240.9

$x^2 = 5.74$, $p < 0.025$ (1.9 percent; 28.3 percent; 2.0 percent; 2.0 percent).

E.g.: "More married women are entering the workforce."

Other categories of response considered important by both groups were 'economic conditions' (28.3 percent; 37.7 percent; 30.6 percent; 26.5 percent), 'overpopulation/baby boom' (22.6 percent; 54.7 percent; 14.3 percent; 32.7 percent) and the more simplistic idea of just 'not enough jobs' (30.2 percent; 20.8 percent; 26.5 percent; 32.7 percent).

Overall, experimental subjects appeared to be better informed of the causes of unemployment, after they had attended a Pitcaithly House course.

(8) Affects of Unemployment (m)

This question investigated the ways in which subjects felt the unemployment situation could affect them personally. Again, a large number of different categories of response were given. (Table 25, Appendix II). Both groups pointed out the need for qualifications due to increased competition (20.8 percent; 24.5 percent; 32.7 percent; 20.4 percent).

E.g.: "More competition... have to take a job that you do not like."

"I could be over-qualified or under-qualified."

Unemployment and the possibility of needing the dole were also mentioned by both groups (34.0 percent; 34.0 percent; 42.9 percent; 63.3 percent).

E.g.: "No job."

"Not being able to get experience."

Subjects were also concerned about a lack of money (7.5 percent; 15.1 percent; 22.4 percent; 22.4 percent).

E.g.: "Hard up for money.... depression."

(9) How Time Would be Spent if Unemployed (m)

The ways in which subjects would spend their time, should they find themselves unemployed was investigated. (Table 4). A significant change in response to the variable 'job searches' was identified. Unfortunately however, examination of frequency data reveals that this change in response is not brought about solely by increased numbers of experimental subjects mentioning this variable after treatment. Rather, in addition to this change, there is an even larger decrease in the number of control subjects mentioning the factor.

$x^2 = 3.92$, $p < 0.05$ (73.6 percent; 81.1 percent; 69.4 percent; 53.1 percent).

It is interesting to note the high overall response rate to this variable however.

A limited number of subjects also mentioned part-time or voluntary work (18.9 percent; 15.1 percent; 32.7 percent; 28.6 percent).

E.g.: "Doing volunteer work and hunting around for a job."

"Doing odd jobs around the house, going to night school, or housework for old people."

A slight (but not significant) increase was noted in the number of experimental subjects interested in attending job skills courses (3.8 percent; 15.1 percent; 22.4 percent; 14.3 percent).

(10) Application for Unemployment Benefit

Whether or not subjects would apply for 'the dole' was investigated by this question. (Table 26, Appendix II).

Table 4: How Time Would be Spent if Unemployed

Activity	Experimental Group							
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Job Searches	39	73.6	43	81.1	34	69.4	26	53.1
2. Labour Department/ Employment Agencies	5	9.4	5	9.4	3	6.1	2	4.1
3. Part-time/ Voluntary work	10	18.9	8	15.1	16	32.7	14	28.6
4. Job skills courses	2	3.8	8	15.1	11	22.4	7	14.3
5. Hobbies & interests	2	3.8	5	9.4	5	10.2	7	14.3
6. Socialising	6	11.3	6	11.3	6	12.2	7	14.3
7. Go on dole	2	3.8	2	3.8	1	2.0	3	6.1
8. Other	11	20.8	10	18.9	13	26.5	15	30.6
TOTAL	77	145.4	87	164.1	89	181.5	81	165.3

A shift of response to the affirmative by experimental subjects suggests that a number of subjects made up their minds following treatment. Responses to the affirmative (41.5 percent; 66.0 percent; 46.9 percent; 53.1 percent) versus those who 'don't know' (35.8 percent; 17.0 percent; 44.9 percent; 32.7 percent).

(11) Labour Department Help for the Unemployed (m)

This question sought to investigate how much was known by subjects about the help available to them through the Department of Labour. (Table 27, Appendix II). Help in 'finding work' was the major response category for both groups (47.2 percent; 56.6 percent; 81.6 percent; 73.5 percent).

E.g.: "By looking for jobs for you."

"Tell you of available jobs."

The experimental group however was more specific, both before and after treatment. The need to register was mentioned (20.8 percent; 22.6 percent; 6.1 percent; 10.2 percent).

E.g.: "You can register with them."

The supply of available information was also mentioned (32.1 percent; 28.3 percent; 16.3 percent; 18.4 percent). Possibly, the experimental group had already had some dealings with the Labour Department.

(12) Location of Labour Department

Initially, approximately 50 percent of subjects from both groups could locate the Christchurch Labour Department to the Cathedral Square (49.1 percent; 66.0 percent; 44.9 percent; 42.9 percent). By combining the first three and last three categories of response, a significant result was

obtained. There was an increase in the number of experimental subjects who had at least a vague idea of where the Labour Department was located, as opposed to no idea at all, following treatment.

$x^2 = 6.84$, $p < 0.01$

This increase in the knowledge of experimental subjects as to where to seek help is encouraging, providing of course, they do actually take advantage of the services offered. Refer to Table 5.

(13) Vocational Guidance (m)

This question investigated how much was known by subjects about the services provided by the Vocational Guidance Centre (Table 6). A significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'information' after treatment was identified.

$x^2 = 6.61$, $p < 0.025$ (7.5 percent; 34.0 percent; 18.4 percent; 16.3 percent)

E.g.: "Help you sort out which job you want. Give you information."

A significant increase was also identified in the numbers of subjects mentioning the variable 'what job would suit you'

$x^2 = 7.78$, $p < 0.01$ (13.2 percent; 43.4 percent; 12.2 percent; 12.2 percent)

E.g.: "They sort out what jobs are best for you."

The low overall response rate of subjects in both groups to this question indicates that not too much is known about the Vocational Guidance Centre. It appears that Pitcaithly House is a means of introducing a number of students to the information and career guidance services provided by the Vocational Guidance Centre.

Table 5: Knowledge of the Location of the Christchurch Labour Department

Location	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Housing Corporation	2	3.8	2	3.8	0	0	1	2.0
2. Square	26	49.1	35	66.0	22	44.9	21	42.9
3. Colombo St	0	0	7	13.2	0	0	1	2.0
4. Other	9	17.0	9	17.0	11	22.4	10	20.4
5. Don't Know	6	11.3	0	0	7	14.3	6	12.2
6. No Answer	10	18.9	0	0	9	18.4	10	20.4
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 6: Help Expected from the Vocational Guidance Centre

Help	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Information	4	7.5	18	34.0	9	18.4	8	16.3
2. Career guidance	1	1.9	4	7.5	5	10.2	6	12.2
3. Suitable job	7	13.2	23	43.4	6	12.2	6	12.2
4. Learn about self	3	5.7	1	1.9	0	0	0	0
5. Job skills	16	30.2	8	15.1	5	10.2	5	10.2
6. Other	7	13.2	7	13.2	9	18.4	5	10.2
7. Don't Know	3	5.7	0	0	7	14.3	6	12.2
TOTAL	41	77.4	61	115.1	41	83.7	36	73.3

(14) Access to Job

This question revealed that most subjects were aware that they would face difficulties in obtaining the job they wanted. (Table 28, Appendix II). These subjects indicated that the statement was false (67.9 percent; 64.2 percent; 81.6 percent; 81.6 percent).

(15) Self Knowledge

Nearly all subjects were in agreement with this statement; that self knowledge is an important factor in making an occupational choice (96.2 percent; 100.0 percent; 95.9 percent; 93.9 percent). Refer to Table 29, Appendix II.

(16) Preparation for Employment

Response to this question, which investigated the need for job preparation while still at school, was almost unanimous. (Table 30, Appendix II). Subjects indicated that the statement was false; advance preparation was considered important (98.1 percent; 100 percent; 93.9 percent; 95.9 percent).

(17) Job Decision

Whether or not subjects had made up their minds about what job they wanted to do when they left school was investigated. Analysis showed that a significant number of experimental subjects had made up their minds about a job, following treatment.

$x^2 = 8.10$, $p < 0.025$ (62.3 percent; 81.1 percent; 69.4 percent; 61.2 percent)

The number of decisions made about future careers while at Pitcaithly House indicates Pitcaithly's role in clarifying job possibilities for students. Refer to Table 7.

Table 7: Numbers of Students who Have Made Job Decisions

Decision	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	33	62.3	43	81.1	34	69.4	30	61.2
2. No	19	35.8	8	15.1	13	26.5	19	38.8
3. No Answer	1	1.9	2	3.8	2	4.1	0	0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

(18) Choice of Occupation

As an extension of the previous question, students who had made a job decision were asked to indicate what the particular choice(s) was. (Table 31, Appendix II). Quite a number of possible occupations were mentioned, yet none stood out as interesting more than three or four students. As in response to Question 17, the number of experimental subjects indicating their job choice, increased significantly following treatment.

$x^2 = 5.54$, $p < 0.025$ (64.2 percent; 84.9 percent; 67.3 percent; 61.2 percent)

(19) Job Knowledge

The extent of a student's knowledge about his intended occupation was investigated. (Table 32, Appendix II). Highest response rates for both groups were recorded in the categories ranked 'good knowledge' (18.9 percent; 28.3 percent; 36.7 percent; 28.6 percent), 'some knowledge' (24.5 percent; 32.1 percent; 16.3 percent; 22.4 percent) and the highest of all was actually that of 'no answer' (35.8 percent; 15.1 percent; 32.7 percent; 38.8 percent). Job knowledge for most students appears to be limited, and little increase in this knowledge can be seen after treatment.

(20) Where Job was Learnt About (m)

Subjects were asked where they had learnt about the particular job(s) they wanted to do. (Table 8). A significant increase was found in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'Pitcaithly House', following treatment.

$x^2 = 6.72$, $p < 0.01$ (0.0 percent; 28.3 percent; 0.0 percent; 0.0 percent)

Table 8: Where Subjects Learnt about their Chosen Job

	Experimental Group				Control Group			
Learn	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Enquiries	4	7.5	3	5.7	2	4.1	1	2.0
2. Labour Dept	2	3.8	1	1.9	0	0	0	0
3. Pamphlets	3	5.7	3	5.7	6	12.2	7	14.3
4. Parents/ Family	6	11.3	4	7.5	5	10.2	11	22.4
5. Pitcaithly House	0	0	15	28.3	0	0	0	0
6. School	11	20.8	13	24.5	11	22.4	10	20.4
7. Vocational Guidance	3	5.7	8	15.1	2	4.1	3	6.1
8. Work Exploration	3	5.7	4	7.5	2	4.1	3	6.1
9. Friends	4	7.5	7	13.2	0	0	9	18.4
10. Other	3	5.7	5	9.4	9	18.4	7	14.3
11. Don't remember/ Don't know	2	3.8	2	3.8	3	6.1	3	6.1
TOTAL	41	77.5	65	122.6	40	81.6	54	110.1

Obviously, Pitcaithly House was an important source of information for those who were able to attend.

A number of other students from both groups indicated their reliance on the school (20.8 percent; 24.5 percent; 22.4 percent; 20.4 percent).

(21) Entry Qualifications

This question investigated whether or not the students were qualified for entry into the job they wanted. (Table 33, Appendix II). Although there was some increase in the number of experimental subjects indicating that they did have the appropriate qualifications following treatment (26.4 percent; 43.4 percent; 16.3 percent; 14.3 percent), the large numbers of subjects indicating that they did not know (28.3 percent; 26.4 percent; 32.7 percent; 26.5 percent), or did not answer (35.8 percent; 15.1 percent; 34.7 percent; 40.8 percent) must also be considered. These results complement the findings of Question 19, in highlighting the need these students have for more specific knowledge about their chosen occupations.

(22) Job Alternatives

A number of different strategies were indicated by students, if they could not get the kind of job they wanted. (Table 9). Combining these categories, as opposed to those who did not know what they would do, or gave no answer, produced a significant result.

$x^2 = 11.66$, $p < 0.001$

The highest percentage of students in both groups were resigned to the possible need of taking another kind of job (28.3 percent; 39.6 percent; 28.6 percent; 30.6 percent).

Table 9: Possible Alternatives if Chosen Job is not Attainable

Alternative	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Settle for something else	5	9.4	2	3.8	6	12.2	1	2.0
2. Take any job, keep looking	3	5.7	5	9.4	1	2.0	0	0
3. Similar kind job	6	11.3	8	15.1	7	14.3	7	14.3
4. Another job	15	28.3	21	39.6	14	28.6	15	30.6
5. Other	2	3.8	7	13.2	7	14.3	3	6.1
6. Don't know	3	5.7	0	0	1	2.0	2	4.1
7. No Answer	19	35.8	10	18.9	13	26.5	21	42.9
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

E.g.: "Try something along the same lines if possible."

"Get another job in a different line."

"Settle for something less desirable."

Quite a number of subjects from both groups did not answer this question at all (35.8 percent; 18.9 percent; 26.5 percent; 42.9 percent). Perhaps the possibility of not being able to get into the occupation they wanted had not really occurred to these students before.

(23) Jobs Interested In

This question was directed only at those students who indicated in Question 17 that they had not made up their minds about the job they wanted to do. Instead, the kinds of occupation these students were merely interested in was investigated. (Table 34, Appendix II)

(24) Sources of Job Information (m)

A large number of different sources of information were identified in response to this question. In addition, the overall response rate itself was high. (Table 10). What does stand out especially is a very significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'Vocational Guidance', following treatment.

$x^2 = 38.71$, $p < 0.001$ (15.1 percent; 73.6 percent; 18.4 percent; 18.4 percent)

The initially low response rate on this, as compared to other variables by both groups, indicates that not much is known about the Vocational Guidance Centre by most students. This finding complements those of Question 13 and emphasises the role of Pitcaithly House in introducing young people to the Vocational Guidance Centre.

Table 10: Sources of Job Information

Information	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Parents	27	50.9	36	67.9	32	65.3	34	69.4
2. Relations	15	28.3	18	34.0	16	32.7	23	46.9
3. Friends	30	56.6	42	79.2	26	53.1	29	59.2
4. School teachers	19	35.8	23	43.4	13	26.5	13	26.5
5. School Guidance Staff	29	54.7	32	60.4	25	51.0	21	42.9
6. Vocational Guidance	8	15.1	39	73.6	9	18.4	9	18.4
7. Employers	15	28.3	19	35.8	8	16.3	11	22.4
8. Work Visits	13	24.5	21	39.6	7	14.3	9	18.4
9. Ads and brochures	23	43.4	34	64.2	19	38.8	24	49.0
10. Others	3	5.7	4	7.5	5	10.2	2	4.1
TOTAL	182	343.3	268	505.6	160	326.6	175	357.2

Of the other variables mentioned, 'parents' (50.9 percent, 67.9 percent; 65.3 percent; 69.4 percent), 'friends' (56.6 percent; 79.2 percent; 53.1 percent; 59.2 percent), 'school guidance services' (54.7 percent; 60.4 percent; 51.0 percent; 42.9 percent) and 'advertisements and brochures' (43.4 percent; 64.2 percent; 38.8 percent; 49.0 percent) were rated highly.

(25) Further Study (At School)

A slight increase in the number of experimental subjects prepared to stay at school to gain further qualifications was indicated in these results (49.1 percent; 64.2 percent; 63.3 percent; 75.5 percent). Initial differences between the two groups on this variable may stem from the fact that those in the experimental group don't want any more schooling (and therefore attend Pitcaithly House), while those in the control group are content to remain.

A number of students had not yet made up their minds either way (28.3 percent; 26.4 percent; 30.6 percent; 16.3 percent).

Refer to Table 35, Appendix II.

(26) Further Study (On the Job)

Analysis of this question indicates that students are more enthusiastic about study as part of their training than further study at school. (Table 36, Appendix II). While most subjects from both groups agree that they would be prepared to do further study (71.7 percent; 88.7 percent; 79.6 percent; 85.7 percent), a small number are unsure (22.6 percent; 7.5 percent; 16.3 percent; 12.2 percent).

(27) Self Description

Rather than considering the details of these self-descriptions, analysis involved coding them according to the quality of the response. (Table 37, Appendix II). Although not significant, a slight improvement in response was detected among the experimental subjects, after treatment.

(28) Personal Qualities and Skills

In analysing responses to this question, the number of qualities or skills mentioned by subjects was considered. (Table 38, Appendix II). A drop in the number of experimental subjects who did not answer, following treatment, indicates an overall improvement in the self-knowledge displayed by these subjects (41.5 percent; 15.1 percent; 24.5 percent; 24.5 percent).

(29) Self Opinion

A slight increase in the number of experimental subjects who could write good points about themselves, after treatment, indicates an increase in self worth and self confidence in these students (15.1 percent; 35.8 percent; 26.5 percent; 18.4 percent). The 'no answer' category remained high however (50.9 percent; 30.2 percent; 42.9 percent; 38.8 percent). This demonstrates the difficulty and reluctance most people have in speaking openly about their good points.

Refer to Table 39, Appendix II.

(30) Hobbies and Interests

There was a significant increase in the number of experimental subjects who made a 'good' response on this variable following treatment.

$x^2 = 11.50$, $p < 0.01$ (3.8 percent; 32.1 percent; 2.0 percent; 0.0 percent)

This increase was possibly made at the expense of the 'little effort' category (69.8 percent; 32.1 percent; 61.2 percent; 57.1 percent).

Refer to Table 11.

(31) Career Goals

Investigation of what subjects wanted out of their careers revealed little of interest. (Table 40, Appendix II). The highest category of response was an 'adequate' reply (43.4 percent; 47.2 percent; 53.1 percent; 51.0 percent).

(32) Job Search Methods (m)

A number of different methods of finding job vacancies were identified (Table 12). A significant increase was found in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'direct contact/calling'.

$x^2 = 9.36$, $p < 0.005$ (54.7 percent; 75.5 percent; 46.9 percent; 32.7 percent)

However, the significance of this variable was contributed to in part by the slight decrease in number of control subjects mentioning the variable.

A significant increase was also identified in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable, 'phoning'.

$x^2 = 9.82$, $p < 0.005$ (9.4 percent; 39.6 percent; 8.2 percent; 4.1 percent)

In addition, a significant increase was found in the number of control subjects mentioning the variable 'School Careers Advisor' on the second administration.

Table 11: Hobbies and Interests

Interests	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Good Response	2	3.8	17	32.1	1	2.0	0	0
2. Adequate	14	26.4	19	35.8	15	30.6	19	38.8
3. Little Effort	37	69.8	17	32.1	30	61.2	28	57.1
4. No Answer	0	0	0	0	3	6.1	2	4.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 12: Job Search Methods

Method	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Direct	29	54.7	40	75.5	23	46.9	16	32.7
2. Letter	5	9.4	11	20.8	5	10.2	3	6.1
3. Phone	5	9.4	21	39.6	4	8.2	2	4.1
4. Friends/ family	21	39.6	30	56.6	19	38.8	22	44.9
5. Newspaper	38	71.7	44	83.0	42	85.7	42	85.7
6. Labour Dept	28	52.8	38	71.7	31	63.3	31	63.3
7. Employment Agencies	1	1.9	9	17.0	1	2.0	3	6.1
8. Vocational Guidance	4	7.5	12	22.6	1	2.0	4	8.2
9. Radio and television	3	5.7	15	28.3	5	10.2	7	14.3
10. School Careers Advisor	10	18.9	8	15.1	14	28.6	26	53.1
11. Work Exploration	2	3.8	1	1.9	0	0	2	4.1
12. Others/Don't Know	19	35.8	21	39.6	16	32.7	18	36.7
TOTAL	165	311.2	250	471.7	161	328.6	176	359.3

$x^2 = 5.60$, $p < 0.025$ (18.9 percent; 15.1 percent; 28.6 percent; 53.1 percent)

It appears that the first administration of the questionnaire may have created sufficient interest in a number of students, to induce them to seek out information from their School Careers Advisor.

Other categories of high response were 'friends/ family' (39.6 percent; 56.6 percent; 38.8 percent; 44.9 percent) 'newspapers' (71.7 percent; 83.0 percent; 85.7 percent; 85.7 percent), and the 'Labour Department' (52.8 percent; 71.7 percent; 63.3 percent; 63.3 percent).

(33) Best Method of Getting a Job

Subjects were asked to indicate which of the above methods was in fact the most useful for obtaining work. (Table 13). The one category of response that stands out is that of 'direct contact' (22.6 percent; 54.7 percent; 20.4 percent; 16.3 percent). By combining all other categories and comparing them against the 'direct' category, we achieve a significant result.

$x^2 = 11.10$, $p < 0.001$

It appears that Pitcaithly House students are made aware that direct contact is a more effective method of locating job vacancies, than the more commonly used method of looking through newspapers.

(34) Telephone Skills (m)

Subjects indicated that when telephoning for a job interview, it was important to have with you, the advertisement (34.0 percent; 56.6 percent; 20.4 percent; 22.4 percent), a pen and paper (54.7 percent; 60.4 percent; 30.6 percent;

Table 13: Best Method for Getting a Job

Method	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. All	2	3.8	3	5.7	4	8.2	3	6.1
2. Direct contact/calling	12	22.6	29	54.7	10	20.4	8	16.3
3. Labour Dept	9	17.0	4	7.5	10	20.4	9	18.4
4. Newspaper	9	17.0	0	0	6	12.2	8	16.3
5. Friends/family	2	3.8	8	15.1	2	4.1	3	6.1
6. Other	5	9.4	3	5.7	7	14.3	9	18.4
7. None/Don't know	3	5.7	0	0	2	4.1	2	4.1
8. No Answer	11	20.8	6	11.3	8	16.3	7	14.3
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

34.7 percent), and your "curriculum vitae" (43.4 percent; 50.9 percent; 55.1 percent; 69.4 percent).

Refer to Table 41, Appendix.

(35) Letter of Application (m)

In considering the kinds of things an employer would look for in a letter of application, subjects from both groups mentioned the importance of presentation (60.4 percent; 86.8 percent; 59.2 percent; 57.1 percent) and of qualifications and skills (43.4 percent; 35.8 percent; 44.9 percent; 44.9 percent).

There was a significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'presentation'.

$x^2 = 6.61$, $p < 0.025$.

E.g.: "Handwriting, see how neat you write. The ways in which you set things out."

There was also a slight increase in the number of experimental subjects who considered including the names of referees, references and reports with their letter (7.5 percent; 18.9 percent; 8.2 percent; 12.2 percent).

Refer to Table 14.

(36) Preparation for Job Interview (m)

This question investigated the kind of things subjects would do to prepare themselves for a job interview. (Table 15).

A significant increase was found in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'Interview kit', following treatment.

$x^2 = 13.38$, $p < 0.001$ (26.4 percent; 71.7 percent; 40.8 percent; 51.0 percent)

Table 14: What Employers Would Look for in a Letter of Application

Requirement	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Presentation	32	60.4	46	86.8	29	59.2	28	57.1
2. Qualifications, skills	23	43.4	19	35.8	22	44.9	22	44.9
3. References, referees & reports	4	7.5	10	18.9	4	8.2	6	12.2
4. Hobbies & interests	5	9.4	4	7.5	3	6.1	3	6.1
5. Experience	6	11.3	1	1.9	7	14.3	11	22.4
6. Information about self	8	15.1	12	22.6	13	26.5	16	32.7
7. Interest in & knowledge of job	1	1.9	2	3.8	8	16.3	10	20.4
8. Photo	1	1.9	2	3.8	1	2.0	0	0
9. Age	6	11.3	2	3.8	7	14.3	8	16.3
10. Other	1	1.9	3	5.7	2	4.1	4	8.2
TOTAL	87	164.1	101	190.6	96	195.9	108	220.3

Table 15: Preparation for the Job Interview

Preparation	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Interview kit	14	26.4	38	71.7	20	40.8	25	51.0
2. What to say, act	17	32.1	14	26.4	24	49.0	26	53.1
3. Appearance	33	62.3	32	60.4	35	71.4	32	65.3
4. Know where you are going	1	1.9	3	5.7	0	0	1	2.0
5. Information on job, firm	1	1.9	3	5.7	5	10.2	2	4.1
6. Other	3	5.7	0	0	7	14.3	12	24.5
TOTAL	69	130.3	90	169.9	91	185.7	98	200.0

In addition, subjects from both groups noted the importance of knowing what to say and how to act during the interview (32.1 percent; 26.4 percent; 49.0 percent; 53.1 percent), and of appearance (62.3 percent; 60.4 percent; 71.4 percent; 65.3 percent).

(37) What to Take to the Job Interview (m)

There was a significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variable 'Interview Kit'.

$x^2 = 11.53$, $p < 0.001$ (5.7 percent; 41.5 percent; 0.0 percent; 0.0 percent)

And also the variable 'curriculum vitae', after treatment.

$x^2 = 26.04$, $p < 0.001$ (5.7 percent; 54.7 percent; 2.0 percent; 0.0 percent)

These results highlight the organised approach to job interviews as taught at Pitcaithly House, compared to the lack of preparation exhibited by the control subjects.

Subjects from both groups also suggested taking reports (35.8 percent; 32.1 percent; 32.7 percent; 34.7 percent), the names of referees and references (56.6 percent; 62.3 percent; 55.1 percent; 65.3 percent), and certificates (47.2 percent; 43.4 percent; 59.2 percent; 71.4 percent) to the interview.

Refer to Table 16.

(38) Body Language (m)

This question investigated how much the subjects knew about the subject of 'body language'. (Table 17). Although considered by both groups prior to treatment, there was a significant increase in the number of experimental subjects mentioning the variables 'posture',

Table 16: What to Take to the Job Interview

Take	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Interview kit	3	5.7	22	41.5	0	0	0	0
2. Reports	19	35.8	17	32.1	16	32.7	17	34.7
3. References, names of referees	30	56.6	33	62.3	27	55.1	32	65.3
4. Certificates	25	47.2	23	43.4	29	59.2	35	71.4
5. Curriculum Vitae	3	5.7	29	54.7	1	2.0	0	0
6. Pen & paper	8	15.1	5	9.4	4	8.2	4	8.2
7. Other	4	7.5	9	17.0	7	14.3	6	12.2
TOTAL	92	173.6	138	260.4	84	171.5	94	191.8

Table 17: The Importance of a Body Language

Kinds of	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Posture	10	18.9	36	67.9	10	20.4	9	18.4
2. Eye contact	17	32.1	37	69.8	13	26.5	15	30.6
3. Firm Hand-shake	3	5.7	8	15.1	0	0	1	2.0
4. Nodding	3	5.7	9	17.0	3	6.1	5	10.2
5. Clear speech	5	9.4	4	7.5	4	8.2	2	4.1
6. Hands, gestures	12	22.6	18	34.0	11	22.4	14	28.6
7. Other	8	15.1	8	15.1	10	20.4	11	22.4
TOTAL	58	109.5	120	226.4	51	104.0	57	116.3

$x^2 = 26.04$, $p < 0.001$ (18.9 percent; 67.9 percent; 20.4 percent; 18.4 percent)

and also 'eye contact'.

$x^2 = 10.67$, $p < 0.005$ (22.6 percent; 34.0 percent; 22.4 percent; 28.6 percent)

Another form of body language mentioned was the use of hands and gestures (22.6 percent; 34.0 percent; 22.4 percent; 28.6 percent).

III. PART II "BACKGROUND INFORMATION"

The following is a summary of the demographic data obtained - the results given in terms of percentages, and a discussion of those results.

(1) Age

Subject age was analysed by rounding up or down to the nearest complete year. (Table 42, Appendix II). Considering first the experimental group, the highest age category was found to be 15 year olds (34 percent). Next were 16 year olds (26.4 percent) and 17 year olds (24.5 percent). Similarly, for the control group; 15 year olds (36.7 percent), 16 year olds (34.7 percent) and 17 year olds (16.3 percent).

(2) Sex

Analysis of the sex of subjects indicates a quite definite female majority (Table 43, Appendix II). In the experimental group, the ratio was 24.5 percent male, to 75.5 percent female. Similarly, the control group was matched to produce figures of 22.4 percent male and 77.6 percent female.

The obvious question is why were there so many females attending courses at Pitcaithly House? Perhaps the time of year had some bearing on the numbers attending, or is it that the needs of males are somehow different? Possibly, males are more confident of the transition and cannot see the use of a Pitcaithly House course.

(3) Position in the Family

The position of a subject within the family was investigated. (Table 44, Appendix II). Results show that position in the family is well spread. For the experimental group, 32.1 percent were the first child, 28.3 percent the second. In the control group, the highest category however was the third child (30.6 percent), followed by the second (20.4 percent) and then the first (18.4 percent).

(4) Parents' Occupation

The father's occupation was considered first, using the writer's own classification system. In the experimental group, two categories of occupation stand out, 'tradesman' (30.2 percent) and the 'unskilled' (20.8 percent). Analysis of the control group however reveals a more even spread of occupation. Refer to Table 45, Appendix II.

The mother's occupation was considered in less detail - merely whether she was working or not. In the experimental group, 66.0 percent were employed, and in the control group, 53.1 percent.

Refer to Table 46, Appendix II.

(5) School Attending

Thirteen different Christchurch schools contributed students for the Pitcaithly House Courses studied. (Table 47,

Appendix II). In such a situation, students are forced to mix with people they do not know.

Control subjects were chosen from seven different Christchurch schools, considered as representative as possible of those schools mentioned above.

(6) Form at School

It is interesting to note that the largest number of students attending the Pitcaithly House Courses studied were fourth-formers (41.5 percent; 49.0 percent). The next largest group were fifth-formers (34.0 percent; 24.5 percent). This is not however a truly representative picture of those attending Pitcaithly House. Because the study was carried out in the third term, fourth-form students were over-represented, due to the fact that the higher forms were concentrating on examinations.

Refer to Table 48, Appendix II.

(7) Number of Years at Secondary School

Predictably, the highest category was that of 'two years' (41.5 percent; 49.0 percent), followed by 'three years' (28.3 percent; 22.4 percent).

Refer to Table 49, Appendix II.

(8) Qualifications Gained

Most students either had no qualifications or gave no answer (73.6 percent; 73.5 percent). The next highest category of response was 'partial School Certificate' (15.1 percent; 12.2 percent). Although a lack of qualifications is evident, it must be remembered that the majority of subjects are still in the fourth and fifth forms. But it seems likely that these students will leave school anyway.

Refer to Table 50, Appendix II.

(9) Qualifications Currently Studying For

Again the highest category is that of 'none/no answer' (60.4 percent; 63.3 percent). This percentage however exceeds that of fourth-formers. It appears that a number of students do intend to leave school without gaining any qualifications.

A number of others are studying for School Certificate (28.3 percent; 20.4 percent).

Refer to Table 51, Appendix II.

(10) Work Exploration

A slight difference in the amount of work exploration already undertaken by the two groups was revealed (43.4 percent; 30.6 percent). Yet neither group has had much opportunity to participate in work exploration - a need for more obviously exists.

Refer to Table 52, Appendix II.

(11) Holiday and Part-time Jobs

Analysis of the holiday and part-time jobs mentioned involved considering the number of jobs listed by each subject. (Table 53, Appendix II). The highest category of response was that of only 'one' job (30.2 percent; 49.0 percent).

(12) Voluntary Work

The numbers of experimental and control group subjects who had been involved in voluntary work of some kind were quite similar (54.7 percent; 55.1 percent).

Refer to Table 54, Appendix II.

These last three questions applied to experimental group subjects alone:

(13) Who Suggested Attending Pitcaithly?

The highest category of response to this question was that of the individual involved (34.0 percent).

Refer to Table 55, Appendix II.

(14) Others Who Have Attended

The clear majority of subjects indicated that they did know someone else who had already been to a Pitcaithly House Course (90.6 percent). It is possible that Pitcaithly House was recommended to them by these people. But either way, Pitcaithly House seems well known by the students.

Refer to Table 56, Appendix II.

(15) Expectations Regarding What was to be Learned

In investigating what subjects expected to learn from a Pitcaithly House Course, the major response was that of the 'Job Interview'. Students were interested to learn about various aspects of the interview.

E.g.: "Going for job interviews... what to say." Other responses included learning about how to go about job seeking, self knowledge, confidence, career guidance and mixing with other people.

E.g.: "How to get a job - how to go about it."

IV. PART III "AFTER COURSE QUESTIONS"

The following is a summary of responses obtained from the experimental group, once they had completed a course at Pitcaithly House. Results are presented and discussed.

(1) Most Important Lessons (m)

Subjects indicated that the most important lessons they were taught during the course focussed on the job interview (71.7 percent). Telephoning (56.6 percent) and letter writing (22.6 percent) skills were next in terms of priority. These results indicate that the expectations students had as to what they could learn at Pitcaithly House (Question 15, Part II) were achieved. Students came to the Pitcaithly House Course expecting to learn as much as possible about the job interview process, and they were not disappointed.

Refer to Table 58, Appendix II.

(2) What was enjoyed (m)

When asked to indicate which of a given number of alternatives they had enjoyed while at Pitcaithly House, subjects were very enthusiastic in their replies (Table 59, Appendix II). Quite a number of subjects indicated all six categories. Having new classmates gained the highest response rate (92.5 percent), followed by the treatment received (90.6 percent), and the teachers (88.7 percent). Possibly, an open question would have been more appropriate here. The writer considers that the subject replies may have been restricted to the given response categories.

(3) Attitude to School

This question sought to investigate whether or not students felt differently about school, now that they had completed a Pitcaithly House course. (Table 60, Appendix II). While a number of students did indicate a change in attitude (18.7 percent indicated a positive attitude change toward school and 9.4 percent indicated a negative attitude change), most students indicated that they had not changed their mind

in any way (64.2 percent).

(4) Job Decision Changes

Again, although a number of students indicated that following the Pitcaithly House course, they had changed their minds about what occupation they wanted to pursue (15.1 percent thought they should seek out more information and 7.5 percent had made some kind of decision), the majority of students indicated that no change in decision had been made.

Refer to Table 61, Appendix II.

(5) Changes as a Person (m)

Subjects were asked how they thought they had changed as a person following the Pitcaithly House course. (Table 62, Appendix II). The highest category of response was that of increased self confidence (34.0 percent), followed by increased openness and the ability express oneself (17.0 percent).

E.g.: "I have become far more confident and friendly and I have found out that I have qualities that I never knew I had."

(6) Decision-Making

This question revealed only that the majority of students now found it easier to make decisions (79.2 percent).

Refer to Table 63, Appendix II.

(7) Confidence About Attending Job Interviews

This question sought to determine whether or not subjects were more confident about attending job interviews, after they had completed a Pitcaithly House course. (Table 64, Appendix II). The clear majority of subjects indicated that they were in fact more confident (92.5 percent).

(8) Major Decisions Made

The possibility that subjects had made any major decisions while attending a Pitcaithly House course was investigated. (Table 65, Appendix II). 52.8 percent of the students indicated that they had made no such decisions, yet a number had made decisions concerning future plans (20.8 percent) and about a specific occupation (20.8 percent).

(9) Perceived Value of Pitcaithly House

Asked whether or not the Pitcaithly House course they had attended had been worthwhile, subjects were in almost total agreement that it had been (98.1 percent); only one student declined to answer (1.9 percent).

Refer to Table 66, Appendix II.

(10) Comment About the Course (m)

Finally, subjects were asked to comment on the course they had just completed. (Table 67, Appendix II). The highest category of response was that of enjoying the course (71.7 percent), followed by those who would recommend the course (15.1 percent) and those who had indicated they learnt a lot (15.1 percent).

E.g.: "I think that it is a great course and everyone should go because I learnt a lot and now feel better about going into the workforce."
"I've enjoyed it and recommend it to everyone."
"Very interesting, informative... wakes you up to reality... extremely worthwhile."
"It's excellent."

V. GENERAL DISCUSSION

Analysis of the demographic data revealed the low educational attainments of the young people involved in the study. In addition, student involvement in work experience programmes had been limited and this lack of experience in the workforce was compounded by the small number of part-time and holiday job opportunities indicated. The expectations of these students as to what they hoped to learn at Pitcaithly House focussed on the job interview and other practical job-seeking skills, on career guidance, and on the coping skills of self knowledge, self confidence and the ability to mix with other people, all of which are aspects covered by the goals of Pitcaithly House and incorporated in their courses.

Part I of the questionnaire can be broken down into sections for analysis. Following the opening statement in Question 1, there are a number of items investigating the transition of students from school to work (Questions 2, 3 and 4). In spite of student awareness of a number of differences between the two environments, the young people studied appeared to be looking forward to the transition.

Student perceptions of the job market (Questions 5 and 6) and of the unemployment situation (Questions 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11) were also investigated. Results indicated that most students were aware of the difficulties they would have to face in obtaining a job, and that they were made more aware of the current unemployment situation and how it could affect them personally, after they had attended a Pitcaithly House course.

Analysis of Questions 12 and 13 revealed that similar to findings of the Christchurch Employment Advisory Committee

(1979), the Employment and Vocational Guidance Services of the Department of Labour were cited by relatively few as a source of help for the unemployed. Perhaps this was because the service was not seen by students as being able to provide help, or as appears more probable, because the types of help offered were not known about by the young people. Either way, there was certainly an improvement in student's knowledge as to where to seek help, after they had attended a Pitcaithly House course.

The general statements made in Questions 14, 15 and 16 yielded little useful information.

Career awareness was the topic under investigation in Questions 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 23. A significant number of job decisions were made following attendance at Pitcaithly House, but it is disturbing to note the lack of actual knowledge about these occupations that was exhibited by most students. Even after participating in a Pitcaithly House course, students found it difficult to answer questions on such aspects of their chosen occupation as job activities, necessary qualifications, personal qualities needed, training and prospects of promotion. As Carter (1966) writes, young people have limited expectations as to what the specifics of an occupation may entail.

It may be inferred from Question 22 that the possibility of not actually being able to get the job of their choice had not occurred to many students; rather, that although it would be hard work to do so, they would be successful in the end.

Student job preparation was investigated in Questions 24, 25 and 26. In addition to a significant increase in the use of the Vocational Guidance Centre as a source of job

information, other important sources of information were parents and also friends. These results concur with those of earlier writers (see Chapter III, The Need for Information and Guidance). The notion of further study certainly appeared to take on more positive aspects when associated with work rather than with school.

Life/coping skills came under investigation in Questions 27, 28, 29, 30 and 31. Only a slight improvement in ability was detected in students, following a Pitcaithly House course. The difficulties inherent in measuring these variables however must not be overlooked.

Finally, the practical job-seeking skills were investigated in Questions 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38. Results concur with those of the Christchurch Employment and Advisory Committee (1979) who found that newspapers are the most often used method of looking for jobs. But it is encouraging to see mention of direct contact and use of the Labour Department, in addition to those using the expected informal channels of family and friends. Improvement in some job-seeking skills to significant levels was demonstrated by students following a Pitcaithly House course.

In analysing the "After Course Questions", the very enthusiastic tone of the replies stands out (Questions 2, 9 and 10). Students certainly enjoyed the Pitcaithly House course - perhaps what was enjoyed is also more likely to be retained. Topics identified as being useful were the job interview and telephoning and letter-writing skills.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overall, analysis has revealed an improved performance on the Questionnaire by experimental subjects, following treatment. It can be inferred from this that those students who have had the benefit of attending a Pitcaithly House course know more about their abilities, interests and limitations than those who have not. In respect to the Pitcaithly House goals:

1. The young people attending Pitcaithly House courses appear to have gained a better grasp or understanding of occupational opportunities and are capable of making job decisions. Yet, as previously mentioned, the writer has reservations about the extent of student job knowledge of their chosen occupation.
2. The current level of course concentration on job-seeking skills, particularly those of the interview, appears to be appropriate, and fulfills the needs of students as identified by themselves.
3. The need for life/coping skills has been established. Course emphasis on these could possibly be increased.

There appear to be two different types of students (or possibly the two ends of a continuum) in the groups that the writer assessed at Pitcaithly House. The first group appears to consist of students who have attained some qualifications and have made a definite job decision - in other words they are prepared and "ready" for the transition from school to work. On the other hand, there appears to be a

second group of students who lack both educational qualifications and vocational aims, but who are still wanting to leave school - as an "escape". Can Pitcaithly House successfully cater to both these groups of student in the same course?

A second point to consider is whether or not there is a "best" time for a student to attend Pitcaithly House in terms of age, ability and/or when the student intends to leave school. It may be assumed that much of what is learned at Pitcaithly House will be forgotten by the time the student begins to actively seek employment. Reubens (1977) proposes the idea of prolonged and repeated provision of services. Ideally, Pitcaithly House programmes should be a consolidation of the vocational services provided by schools throughout a student's school career.

In addition to assistance in gaining a job, students need assistance in adjusting to and holding that job. Young workers must know what is expected of them in the new employment situation, for example, avoiding lateness and absenteeism and being able to stick to the job. "Of equal importance to getting a job are the knowledge and skills needed for holding and changing jobs, along with the development of coping behaviour in problems of employment." (Mihalka, 1974, p.13). It may be beneficial for Pitcaithly House to include in their courses more information on the induction of young people into a new job and on how to hold that job.

In recognition of the likelihood of increasing amounts of free time in a student's future life, another possible modification to Pitcaithly House programmes would be the introduction of material on leisure and recreation. The encouragement of parental involvement in, or at the least,

awareness of, the services provided by Pitcaithly House might also be of value. However the writer does have reservations about the likelihood that Pitcaithly House would succeed in motivating many of the parents sufficiently (Reubens, 1977).

Finally, the writer would like to reiterate the important role Pitcaithly House plays in informing young people of the services available to them through the Labour Department and Vocational Guidance Centre, and secondly, to emphasise the need to increase student knowledge of occupations and their specific requirements.

In considering the cost-effectiveness of the Pitcaithly House programme, it should be remembered that the Pitcaithly House courses were developed in response to student needs that were not being adequately catered for by the existing services. Neither the Vocational Guidance Centre, nor schools can afford to concentrate their time and resources on the problems faced by young people in their transition from school to work. In addition, schools cannot provide the specialist personnel, intensive approach, or important "out of school" environment (Reubens 1977, Rabey, 1980) that is available at Pitcaithly House. As long as this need continues to exist, there will be place for Pitcaithly House.

In retrospect, modifications could have been made to improve the study. Administration of the Questionnaire during the second rather than the third school term for example, would have yielded a more representative sample of students attending Pitcaithly House. In addition, the matching of control group subjects would have been made easier, without the pressure of examinations and end of year activities.

The Questionnaire itself was generally well received and understood by subjects. Although one or two queried the directions in Question 17, Part I, these were easily dealt with by the writer who was present throughout each administration. Analysis of questionnaire results indicated that there were items that yielded little useful information; Questions 1, 14, 15 and 16 of Part I could possibly have been omitted.

Because the study was not designed to measure any long-term effects, it could be extended into a longitudinal follow-up of students. Such aspects as their school-to-work transition, employment/unemployment of subjects, and their views on the extent to which Pitcaithly House was of help could be considered. It would be useful to be able to assess just how much of what was learnt at Pitcaithly House, was ultimately remembered and applied by subjects in their job-seeking.

Replication of the current study would also be a useful possibility for further study. Concentration on the second term and the use of a different kind of questionnaire item, for example attitude scales (involving a higher level of measurement) would be useful variations. A completely different kind of approach to the study of Pitcaithly House (as opposed to a questionnaire) might also be effective.

A further recommendation for study would be the comparison of the Pitcaithly House programmes with the various vocational programmes existing in Christchurch schools. Considering that more and more schools are developing their own transition programmes, it would be useful to determine to what extent these programmes overlap those of Pitcaithly, now and in the future.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

PITCAITHLY HOUSE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: _____

1) "It's not what you know, but who you know that will get you a job." What does this statement mean?

_____

_____

_____

2) When do you intend to leave school?

( ) After this course at Pitcaithly House?
( ) At the end of this year?
( ) Only when you have a definite job to go to?
( ) When you are ready to begin searching for a job?
( ) Other (Please specify) _____

3) In what ways do you think going to work will be different from going to school?

_____

_____

_____

4) Are there any things that worry you about changing from school to work?

_____

_____

_____

5) Do you agree or disagree that it is harder to get a job today than it was say 10 years ago?

( ) Agree
( ) Disagree
( ) Don't Know

6) How hard to you think it will be for you to get a job?

_____

_____

_____

7) What kind of things do you think are causing the present unemployment problem?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

8) List three ways in which the present unemployment situation could affect you.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

9) If you were unemployed for a while, how would you spend your time?

_____

_____

_____

10) Would you apply for the Unemployment Benefit (Dole) if you were unemployed?

( ) Yes
( ) No
( ) Don't Know

11) In what ways can the Labour Department help you when you are unemployed?

_____

_____

12) Where is the Christchurch Labour Department?

_____

13) In what ways can the Vocational Guidance Centre help you?

_____

_____

14) Once you have decided what to do, you should be able to get into the occupation (job) you want.

( ) True
( ) False

(3)

15) In making an occupational choice you need to know what kind of person you are.

( ) True
( ) False

16) I don't need to worry about choosing an occupation until I'm out of school.

( ) True
( ) False

17) Have you made up your mind about what job you want to do when you leave school?

( ) Yes (If yes, continue with questions 18-22)
( ) No (If no, go directly to question 23)

18) What is the job you want to do? (If there are more than one, list them in order)

_____

_____

_____

19) Complete the following for the job you want to do most.

Occupation: _____

a) What kind of things would you do? _____

_____

_____

b) What qualifications would you need? _____

_____

_____

c) What sort of person would you need to be? _____

_____

_____

d) What training would you be given? _____

_____

_____

e) What chances are there for promotion? _____

_____

_____

20) Where did you learn about the job you want to do?

_____

_____

21) Are you qualified for entry into the job you want?

( ) Yes
( ) No
( ) Don't Know

22) What will you do if you can't get the kind of job you want?

_____

_____

23) Answer this question only if you answered 'No' to question 17. If you answered 'Yes' to question 17, now go to question 24. What occupations (jobs) are you interested in?

_____

_____

_____

24) Which of the following have you used to get information about jobs?

( ) Parents
( ) Relations
( ) Friends
( ) School Teachers
( ) School Guidance Staff
( ) Vocational Guidance Centre
( ) Employers
( ) Work Visits e.g. work exploration/work experience
( ) Advertisements & brochures
( ) Any others (please specify) _____

25) Would you be prepared to stay at school or do further full-time study, to get better qualifications if they would help you to get the job you want?

( ) Yes
( ) No
( ) Don't Know

26) Would you be prepared to do further study as part of your training once you have got a job?

( ) Yes
( ) No
( ) Don't Know

27) How would you describe yourself as a person?

_____
_____
_____

28) What are the good qualities and skills you have that you would bring to a job?

_____
_____
_____

29) What are some things that you like about yourself?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

30) What are your hobbies and interests?

_____
_____
_____

31) What do you want out of your career?

_____
_____
_____

32) What methods of finding job vacancies are there?

_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

33) Which of the above methods is the best way of getting a job?

_____

34) When answering a job advertisement, what should you have with you when you telephone for a job interview?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

35) What will an employer look for in a letter of application?

_____
_____
_____

36) What things should you do to prepare yourself for a job interview?

_____
_____
_____

37) What are the things you should take to a job interview?

_____
_____
_____

38) Smiling is one way of talking with your body during an interview to show that you are interested in what the interviewer has to say. Do you know of any other kinds of this 'body language'?

_____
_____
_____
_____

please turn over

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1) Name: _____
(Surname) (Christian name)

2) Age: Years _____ Months _____

3) Sex: _____

4) Position in family:
( ) First child
( ) Second
( ) Third
( ) Other (State which) _____

5) Parent's Occupation: Father _____
Mother _____
(If housewife, also give mother's previous occupation)

6) Name of school attending: _____

7) Form at school: _____

8) Number of years at Secondary School:
( ) One
( ) Two
( ) Three
( ) Four
( ) Five
( ) More

9) Qualifications already gained:

Qualification	Year	Number of subjects

10) Qualifications studying for this year:

Qualification	Number of subjects

11) Have you ever done any work experience or work exploration through your school?

( ) Yes

( ) No

12) List any part-time or holiday jobs you have had.

_____

_____

_____

_____

13) Have you ever done any voluntary work e.g. collecting?

( ) Yes (Please specify) _____

( ) No

14) Who suggested you attend this course at Pitcaithly House?

_____

15) Do you know anyone else who has attended a course at Pitcaithly House?

( ) Yes

( ) No

16) What kind of things do you expect to learn about during this course at Pitcaithly House?

_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

AFTER COURSE QUESTIONS

The following questions all refer to the Pitcaithly House Course you have just finished.

1) For you, what were the three most important lessons that were taught?

_____

_____

_____

2) Please tick which of the following you enjoyed.

( ) Being in mufti
( ) Being away from school
( ) Having new classmates
( ) The level of discipline (rules)
( ) How you were treated
( ) Your teacher(s)

3) Do you think any differently about school now that you have done this course?

( ) Yes (Say how) _____
( ) No

4) Have you changed your mind about what job you want to do, now that you have done this course?

( ) Yes (Say how) _____
( ) No

5) How have you changed as a person?

_____

_____

_____

6) Do you find that making decisions is now...

( ) Easier
( ) Harder
( ) The same

(2)

7) How confident are you about going to a job interview now that you have finished this course?

( ) More

( ) Less

( ) The same

8) What major decisions have you made during the course?

_____

_____

_____

9) Do you feel that coming to Pitcaithly House has been worthwhile?

( ) Yes

( ) No

10) Is there anything you would like to say about the course?

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

APPENDIX II

TABLES

Table 18: Outline of a Two-Week Vocational Course, commencing 19/7/82 - First Week

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
9.00	Welcome	Work values	Telephoning skills	Employers point of view	Practice Interview
	Rules/ Regulations			Body language	
	Introductions				
	Pre-Course Questionnaire				
	Looking at self	Interview Kit	Telephoning practice	The Interview	Evaluation of Interviews
	Life/ Coping Skills	Curriculum Vitae	Methods of Finding Job Vacancies		Compile Interview and Vocational Kits
	Introduction (conversations				
12.00					
1.00	The Handshake	Work Skills	Advertisements	The Interview	Individual Reports
	Unemployment	Job Interests	Letter writing	Vocational Information Pamphlets	
	Self-description				
3.00					

Table 18: Outline of a Two-Week Vocational Course ctd....
Second Week

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
9.00	Interviews with Vocational Guidance Counsellor	Coping Skills (Assertiveness)	Application Forms		Evaluate Work Exploration
	Direct Contact Diary and File		Discussion Coping Skills		
	Coping Skills (Transitions)	Time Analysis	Visit to Arts Centre		Revision Summary
	Team game using phone books			Work Exploration	End of Course Questionnaire
12.00					
1.00	Game cont.	Discussion of Time Analysis	Preparation for Work Exploration		Coping Skills (shyness)
	Visit to Labour Dept and Vocational Guidance Centre	Locator Exercise	Job satisfaction and retention		Course Reports
			Case Studies		Discussion - realistic attitude for return to school
3.00					

Table 19: The Importance of Contacts versus Qualifications

Importance	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Contacts vs Qualifications	19	35.8	11	20.8	19	38.8	22	44.9
2. Contacts	21	39.6	29	54.7	24	49.0	23	46.9
3. Others	4	7.5	6	11.3	3	6.1	2	4.1
4. No Answer	9	17.0	7	13.2	3	6.1	2	4.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 20: Intention to Leave School

Leaving	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. After Pitcaithly	2	3.8	2	3.8	0	0	0	0
2. End of year	18	34.0	21	39.6	9	18.4	9	18.4
3. Definite job	25	47.2	23	43.4	22	44.9	22	44.9
4. Ready for job search	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.0
5. Other	8	15.1	7	13.2	16	32.7	16	32.7
6. No Answer	0	0	0	0	2	4.1	1	2.0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 21: Differences Between School and Work

Differences	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Hours/ holidays	15	28.3	17	32.1	6	12.2	10	20.4
2. Payment	32	60.4	24	45.3	28	57.1	26	53.1
3. Job Satis-faction	8	15.1	6	11.3	6	12.2	2	4.1
4. Mixing	12	22.6	19	35.8	14	28.6	12	24.5
5. More demands	13	24.5	13	24.5	16	32.7	16	32.7
6. More respon-sibility, independence	14	26.4	11	20.8	15	30.6	12	24.5
7. Higher per-formance, effort	2	3.8	0	0	0	0	1	2.0
8. Different environment, atmosphere	10	18.9	15	28.3	9	18.4	5	10.2
9. Other	5	9.4	5	9.4	6	12.2	13	26.5
TOTAL	111	209.4	110	207.5	100	204.0	97	198.0

Table 22: Worries About the Transition Between School and Work

Worries	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Getting settled	3	5.7	5	9.4	5	10.2	3	6.1
2. New people	13	24.5	14	26.4	15	30.6	14	28.6
3. Extra responsibility	4	7.5	6	11.3	7	14.3	9	18.4
4. More demands	7	13.2	2	3.8	5	10.2	3	6.1
5. More independence	2	3.8	1	1.9	1	2.0	2	4.1
6. Other	6	11.3	6	11.3	10	20.4	8	16.3
7. Nothing	26	49.1	29	54.7	17	34.7	20	40.8
TOTAL	61	115.1	63	118.8	60	122.4	59	120.4

Table 23: General Statement of Difficulty in Getting a Job

Difficulty	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Agree	45	84.9	51	96.2	39	79.6	41	83.7
2. Disagree	2	3.8	1	1.9	1	2.0	1	2.0
3. Don't Know	6	11.3	1	1.9	9	18.4	7	14.3
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 24: Personal Degree of Difficulty in Getting a Job

Difficulty	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Extremely hard	2	3.8	3	5.7	4	8.2	3	6.1
2. Very hard	12	22.6	17	32.1	10	20.4	13	26.5
3. Hard	21	39.6	17	32.1	19	38.8	10	20.4
4. Not too hard	3	5.7	4	7.5	3	6.1	4	8.2
5. Easy	0	0	1	1.9	0	0	2	4.1
6. Depends	3	5.7	5	9.4	2	4.1	3	6.1
7. Other	2	3.8	3	5.7	8	16.3	6	12.2
8. Don't know	8	15.1	3	5.7	2	4.1	5	10.2
9. No Answer	2	3.8	0	0	1	2.0	3	6.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 25: Personal Affects of Unemployment

Affects	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Restrict job market	5	9.4	11	20.8	5	10.2	6	12.2
2. Competition/ qualifications	11	20.8	13	24.5	16	32.7	10	20.4
3. Change career plans	0	0	2	3.8	1	2.0	0	0
4. Lower job aspirations	4	7.5	5	9.4	5	10.2	9	18.4
5. Unemployment/dole	18	34.0	18	34.0	21	42.9	31	63.3
6. Lack confidence	4	7.5	0	0	2	4.1	0	0
7. No money	4	7.5	11	20.8	11	22.4	11	22.4
8. Bored/ depressed	5	9.4	8	15.1	4	8.2	4	8.2
9. Stay at school	2	3.8	1	1.9	2	4.1	5	10.2
10. Other	11	20.8	19	35.8	6	12.2	6	12.2
TOTAL	64	120.7	88	166.1	73	149.0	82	167.3

Table 26: Application for Unemployment Benefit

Application	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	22	41.5	35	66.0	23	46.9	26	53.1
2. No	12	22.6	9	17.0	4	8.2	7	14.3
3. Don't Know	19	35.8	9	17.0	22	44.9	16	32.7
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 27: Labour Department Help for the Unemployed

Help	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Work schemes	1	1.9	11	20.8	3	6.1	4	8.2
2. Register	11	20.8	12	22.6	3	6.1	5	10.2
3. Information	17	32.1	15	28.3	8	16.3	9	18.4
4. Find Work	25	47.2	30	56.6	40	81.6	36	73.5
5. Dole	6	11.3	8	15.1	4	8.2	5	10.2
6. Other	6	11.3	4	7.5	5	10.2	8	16.3
TOTAL	66	124.6	80	150.9	63	128.5	67	136.8

Table 28: Access to the Job Wanted

Access	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. True	11	20.8	16	30.2	9	18.4	8	16.3
2. False	36	67.9	34	64.2	40	81.6	40	81.6
3. No Answer	0	0	1	1.9	0	0	0	0
4. Invalid	6	11.3	2	3.8	0	0	1	2.0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 29: Self Knowledge

	Experimental Group				Control Group			
Importance of..	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. True	51	96.2	53	100.0	47	95.9	46	93.9
2. False	0	0	0	0	1	2.0	2	4.1
3. No Answer	1	1.9	0	0	1	2.0	1	2.0
4. Invalid	1	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 30: Employment Preparation While Still at School

Preparation	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. True	0	0	0	0	3	6.1	2	4.1
2. False	52	98.1	53	100.0	46	93.9	47	95.9
3. Invalid	1	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 31: Choice of Occupation

Occupation	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
ACCO	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
AIRH	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
ART	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
BANK	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
BUIL	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
BUSI	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
CATE	1	1.9	1	1.9	1	2.0	1	2.0
CHEF	2	3.8	2	3.8	2	4.1	2	4.1
CHIL	2	3.8	2	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
CLOT	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
COOK	1	1.9	2	3.8	2	4.1	1	2.0
CUST	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
DENT	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0
DRIV	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
ENGI	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
FARM	1	1.9	2	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
FITT	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
FLOR	0	0.0	3	5.7	1	2.0	1	2.0
HAIR	4	7.5	3	5.7	1	2.0	1	2.0
HORS	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JOCK	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
JOIN	1	1.9	1	1.9	1	2.0	1	2.0
JOUR	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	4.1	2	4.1
KITC	0	0.0	3	5.7	0	0.0	0	0.0
MACH	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0

Table 31: Choice of Occupation ctd.....

MECH	1	1.9	1	1.9	1	2.0	1	2.0
MILK	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
MOVI	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
NURA	2	3.8	3	5.7	2	4.1	2	4.1
NURS	0	0.0	1	1.9	4	8.2	4	8.2
OFFI	3	5.7	2	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
PANE	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
PETR	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
PILO	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
PNUR	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
POLI	1	1.9	1	1.9	2	4.1	2	4.1
RECE	0	0.0	1	1.9	1	2.0	0	0.0
SECR	2	3.8	1	1.9	1	2.0	1	2.0
SHOP	1	1.9	2	3.8	1	2.0	1	2.0
SIGN	2	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SOCI	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
TEAC	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
TRAV	1	1.9	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
TYPI	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0
VET	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
WAIT	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
WOOD	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
ZOO	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
No choice	19	38.8	8	15.1	16	32.7	19	38.8
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 32: Knowledge of Occupation

Knowledge	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Complete	2	3.8	7	13.2	2	4.1	2	4.1
2. Good knowledge	10	18.9	15	28.3	18	36.7	14	28.6
3. Some knowledge	13	24.5	17	32.1	8	16.3	11	22.4
4. Sketchy knowledge	5	9.4	3	5.7	4	8.2	2	4.1
5. Very limited	4	7.5	3	5.7	1	2.0	1	2.0
6. No Answer	19	35.8	8	15.1	16	32.7	19	38.8
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 33: Entry Qualifications

Qualifications	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	14	26.4	23	43.4	8	16.3	7	14.3
2. No	5	9.4	5	9.4	8	16.3	9	18.4
3. Don't know	15	28.3	14	26.4	16	32.7	13	26.5
4. No Answer	19	35.8	8	15.1	17	34.7	20	40.8
5. Invalid	0	0	3	5.7	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 34: Occupations Interested In

Occupation	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
ACCO	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	4.1
AIRH	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
ANIM	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
ANYJ	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
ARMY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0
BANK	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
CHEF	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
CHIL	1	1.9	2	3.8	1	2.0	2	4.1
COMP	2	3.8	2	3.8	2	4.1	2	4.1
COOK	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	4.1
COSM	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
DIET	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0
DRIV	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
FARM	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
HAIR	1	1.9	0	0.0	2	4.1	1	2.0
KIND	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
MACH	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
MECH	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0

Table 34: Occupations Interested In ctd....

METE	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
NURS	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
OFFI	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0
PAIN	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
PHYS	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
RECE	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SEWI	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SHOP	2	3.8	1	1.9	1	2.0	2	4.1
SOCI	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0	0	0.0
TRAV	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.0
TYPI	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
WILD	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
WOOD	1	1.9	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
No answer	0	0.0	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
Definite job decision	36	67.9	44	83.0	34	69.4	31	63.3
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 35: Further Study (At School)

Study	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	26	49.1	34	64.2	31	63.3	37	75.5
2. No	12	22.6	5	9.4	3	6.1	3	6.1
3. Don't know	15	28.3	14	26.4	15	30.6	8	16.3
4. Invalid	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 36: Further Study (On the Job)

Study	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	38	71.7	47	88.7	39	79.6	42	85.7
2. No	2	3.8	2	3.8	2	4.1	1	2.0
3. Don't know	12	22.6	4	7.5	8	16.3	6	12.2
4. Invalid	1	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 37: Self Description

Description	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Full Description	11	20.8	22	41.5	12	24.5	9	18.4
2. Adequate Description	21	39.6	25	47.2	20	40.8	25	51.0
3. Little Effort	10	18.9	4	7.5	11	22.4	9	18.4
4. No Answer	11	20.8	2	3.8	6	12.2	6	12.2
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 38: Personal Qualities and Skills

Number of..	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. None/No Answer	22	41.5	8	15.1	12	24.5	12	24.5
2. One mentioned	11	20.8	11	20.8	5	10.2	9	18.4
3. Two	5	9.4	12	22.6	13	26.5	16	32.7
4. Three or more	15	28.3	22	41.5	19	38.8	12	24.5
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 39: Self Opinion

Number of..	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Three	8	15.1	19	35.8	13	26.5	9	18.4
2. Two	10	18.9	10	18.9	8	16.3	8	16.3
3. One	8	15.1	8	15.1	7	14.3	13	26.5
4. No Answer	27	50.9	16	30.2	21	42.9	19	38.8
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 40: Career Goals

Response	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Full	6	11.3	11	20.8	8	16.3	12	24.5
2. Adequate	23	43.4	25	47.2	26	53.1	25	51.0
3. Little thought	17	32.1	11	20.8	11	22.4	8	16.3
4. No Answer	7	13.2	6	11.3	4	8.2	4	8.2
TOTAL	53	100.0	53	100.0	49	100.0	49	100.0

Table 41: Telephone Skills

Requirement	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	First Administration		Second Administration		First Administration		Second Administration	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Advertise-ment	18	34.0	30	56.6	10	20.4	11	22.4
2. Pen and paper	29	54.7	32	60.4	15	30.6	17	34.7
3. Curriculum Vitae	23	43.4	27	50.9	27	55.1	34	69.4
4. What to say; ask	4	7.5	7	13.2	6	12.2	9	18.4
5. Other	7	13.2	8	15.1	14	28.6	7	14.3
TOTAL	81	152.8	104	196.2	72	146.9	78	159.2

Table 42: Subject Age

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Years	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
14	3	5.7	0	0
15	18	34.0	18	36.7
16	14	26.4	17	34.7
17	13	24.5	8	16.3
18	3	5.7	4	8.2
19	2	3.8	2	4.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 43: Subject Sex

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Sex	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT
1. Male	13	24.5	11	22.4
2. Female	40	75.5	38	77.6
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 44: Position in the Family

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Position	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. First Child	17	32.1	9	18.4
2. Second	15	28.3	10	20.4
3. Third	9	17.0	15	30.6
4. Other	12	22.6	15	30.6
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 45: Father's Occupation

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Occupation	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Unemployed	2	3.8	2	4.1
2. Unskilled	11	20.8	8	16.3
3. Tradesman	16	30.2	7	14.3
4. Professional	4	7.5	6	12.2
5. Self-Employed	4	7.5	5	10.2
6. Other	5	9.4	9	18.4
7. Unclear	4	7.5	7	14.3
8. Deceased	3	5.7	1	2.0
9. No father or no answer	4	7.5	4	8.2
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 46: Mother's Occupation

Occupation	Experimental Group Absolute Frequency	Experimental Group Relative Frequency (PCT)	Control Group Absolute Frequency	Control Group Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Housewife	17	32.1	20	40.8
2. Employed	35	66.0	26	53.1
3. No mother/no answer	1	1.9	3	6.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 47: School Attended by Subjects

School	Experimental Group Absolute Frequency	Experimental Group Relative Frequency (PCT)	Control Group Absolute Frequency	Control Group Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Aranui	10	18.9	5	10.2
2. Avonside	2	3.8	9	18.4
3. Burnside	3	5.7	8	16.3
4. Chch Girls	9	17.0	7	14.3
5. Hagley	4	7.5	4	8.2
6. Hillmorton	6	11.3	9	18.4
7. Kingslea	2	3.8	0	0.0
8. Lincoln	5	9.4	0	0.0
9. Linwood	1	1.9	0	0.0
10. Marian	1	1.9	0	0.0
11. Oxford	1	1.9	0	0.0
12. Riccarton	6	11.3	0	0.0
13. Papanui	3	5.7	7	14.3
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 48: Form Subject was in at School

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Form	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Four	22	41.5	24	49.0
2. Five	18	34.0	12	24.5
3. 2 year Five	4	7.5	4	8.2
4. Six	5	9.4	5	10.2
5. 2 year Six	0	0	1	2.0
6. Seven	4	7.5	3	6.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 49: Number of years at Secondary School

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Years	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Two	22	41.5	24	49.0
2. Three	15	28.3	11	22.4
3. Four	10	18.9	8	16.3
4. Five	5	9.4	6	12.2
5. More	1	1.9	0	0.0
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 50: Qualifications Already Gained by Subjects

Qualification	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Partial S.C.	8	15.1	6	12.2
2. School Cert.	1	1.9	3	6.1
3. Partial U.E.	1	1.9	1	2.0
4. U.E.	4	7.5	3	6.1
5. None/No Answer	39	73.6	36	73.5
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 51: Qualifications Currently Studying For by Subjects

Qualification	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. S.C.	15	28.3	10	20.4
2. U.E.	3	5.7	5	10.2
3. Bursary	3	5.7	3	6.1
4. None/No Answer	32	60.4	31	63.3
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 52: Any Work Exploration Done by Students

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Work Exploration	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	23	43.4	15	30.6
2. No	29	54.7	33	67.3
3. No Answer	1	1.9	1	2.0
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 53: Number of Holiday and Part-time Jobs Undertaken by Subjects

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Jobs	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Zero/No Answer	11	20.8	11	22.4
2. One	16	30.2	24	49.0
3. Two	14	26.4	5	10.2
4. Three	7	13.2	9	18.4
5. Four or more	5	9.4	0	0.0
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 54: Any Voluntary Work Undertaken by Subjects

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Voluntary Work	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	29	54.7	27	55.1
2. No	23	43.4	19	38.8
3. No Answer	1	1.9	3	6.1
TOTAL	53	100.0	49	100.0

Table 55: Those Who Suggested Student Attend Pitcaithly House

	Experimental Group	
Suggestion	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Self	18	34.0
2. Friends	9	17.0
3. Guidance Counsellor	9	17.0
4. Career Advisor	7	13.2
5. Others/ unclear	10	18.9
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 56: Student Knowledge of Others Who Had Attended Pitcaithly House

	Experimental Group	
Others	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	48	90.6
2. No	5	9.4
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 57: Length of Pitcaithly Course

	Experimental Group	
Length	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. One Week	37	69.8
2. Two Week	16	30.2
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 58: Most Important Lessons

	Experimental Group	
Lesson	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. All	3	5.7
2. Letter writing	12	22.6
3. Telephoning	30	56.6
4. The Interview	38	71.7
5. Self Confidence	6	11.3
6. Body language	7	13.2
7. About getting a job	10	18.9
8. Other	16	30.2
TOTAL	122	230.2

Table 59: What was Enjoyed at Pitcaithly House

	Experimental Group	
Enjoyed...	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Mufti	39	73.6
2. Away from school	42	79.2
3. New classmates	49	92.5
4. Level of discipline	41	77.4
5. Treatment	48	90.6
6. Teachers	47	88.7
TOTAL	266	502.0

Table 60: Subject Change of Attitude to School, after Course

	Experimental Group	
Attitude	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes, positive attitude	10	18.9
2. Yes, negative attitude	5	9.4
3. No	34	64.2
4. No Answer/ Don't Know	4	7.5
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 61: Subject Change of Mind about Job after Course

	Experimental Group	
Change	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes, more information	8	15.1
2. Yes, job decision made	4	7.5
3. No	37	69.8
4. No Answer/ Don't Know	4	7.5
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 62: Changes As a Person After Course

	Experimental Group	
Change	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Learnt about self	3	5.7
2. More confident	18	34.0
3. More friendly, open and able to express self	9	17.0
4. More mature	2	3.8
5. More aware of world of work	7	13.2
6. Other	6	11.3
TOTAL	45	85.0

Table 63: Ability to Make Decisions

	Experimental Group	
Decision-making	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Easier	42	79.2
2. Harder	0	0
3. The same	11	20.8
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 64: Confidence About the Job Interview

	Experimental Group	
Confidence	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. More	49	92.5
2. Less	1	1.9
3. The same	2	3.8
4. No Answer	1	1.9
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 65: Major Decisions Made During Course

	Experimental Group	
Decision	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. None/No Answer	28	52.8
2. Future plans	11	20.8
3. Specific job decision	11	20.8
4. Other	5	9.4
TOTAL	55	103.8

Table 66: Perceived Worth of Pitcaithly House

	Experimental Group	
Worth	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Yes	52	98.1
2. No	0	0
3. No Answer	1	1.9
TOTAL	53	100.0

Table 67: Comments About the Course

	Experimental Group	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (PCT)
1. Enjoyable	38	71.7
2. Recommend	8	15.1
3. Learnt a lot	8	15.1
4. More confident about transition	4	7.5
5. Want to return	6	11.3
6. Other	15	28.3
TOTAL	79	149.0